



A STUDY ON THE TRANSLATION OF THE NORWEGIAN 'DET ER' TO JAPANESE

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1 SUMMARY

This paper investigates the possibilities of significant links or similarities between Norwegian and Japanese. Twice 100 pages from two Norwegian novels were paired with their Japanese translations and investigated for similarities. The similarities were sought by examining how the highly common *det er* 'it is' or 'there is' expletive or near-expletive was translated. The results were analysed using Systemic Functional Linguistics, a type of Functional Grammar. Although some congruencies were found, there were no direct similarities found. Further study may yield more similarities, particularly in the area of Mood/modality and existential implication, so called 'presentational' constructions.

2 FOREWORD

This paper has been plagued by any number of problems, including the time I spend at work, a really rather overambitious initial goal, and regrettable indolence. If it were not for the kind support and wise thoughts of those around me, you wouldn't be holding this paper at all. Of course, then you wouldn't be reading these sentences and then how would you know?

All kidding aside, I would like to thank my parents for constant love, support, and occasional free dinners. My long-suffering advisor, Bjarke Frellesvig, has my endless gratitude for his sage words and for bringing the scope of my ambition into the realms of what I could conceivably accomplish. In the department at IKOS, I must also mention my numerous esteemed teachers, who helped keep my love of language at a boil: Prof. Harbsmeier, Reiko-sensei, Tomoko-sensei, Tami-sensei, and Miyuki-sensei. Special mention must also be made of sensei-tachi Mark and Dick, who although they haven't strictly speaking contributed to my linguistics work,¹ nevertheless have contributed to my involvement in and love of Japan and Japanese culture through their colourful courses.

If this paper should be lacking in any way, it ~~is probably their fault~~² is no reflection upon them or the wonderful and varied teachings they have imparted me. Thank you all for your patience, and hopefully this paper will be worth the read.

¹ That's not strictly speaking true. Sorry about not turning in that essay, Mark!

² This is a joke. Really.

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4 PRELIMINARIES

4.1 LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADN	adnominal	GEN	genitive
AFF	affirmative	GER	gerund
AJNT	Adjunct	INDEF	indefinite
CJNT	conjunction	INTJ	interjection
CL	classifier	NEG	negative/Negotiator
CMPL	Complement	NMZ	nominalizer
CMT	comment (cf. TOP)	NOM	nominative
COL	colloquial use	NPST	non-past
COMP	comparative	POL	polite
conc	concessive	PRED	Predicator
cond	conditional	PROG	progressive tense
conj	conjectural	PRON	pronoun
COP	copula	PST	past
D.O	direct object	PSV	passive
DAT	dative	QUOT	quotative / quotation particle
DEF	definite	REL	relative clause
DEM	demonstrativ	RH	Rheme (cf. TH)
DEP	dependent clause	SJNT	subjunction
DET	determiner	SUBJ	subj
EMPH	emphatic	TH	Theme (cf. RH)
FIN	Finite	TOP	topic (cf. CMT)

I am taking the basic semantic categories, such as (A)djective, (adv)erb, (N)oun, (P)re-/postposition, and (V)erb, as read.

Please see 7.2 for notes on SFL-specific terms.

4.2 PUNCTUATION

4.2.1 GENERAL

In this paper, sentence analyses employ the following punctuation.

()	added for clarity, <i>not</i> present in source.
[]	disregarded for clarity, present in source
{ }	phrase structure
... ...	alternates
.	conjugation
-	affixation

4.2.2 SFL-SPECIFIC USE IN THE TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION (7.2.3.3):

/// ... ///	independent or main clause
... // ...	coordinated clauses (parataxis), numbers used for reference
1 2	
... / ...	dependent and main clause (hypotaxis), β is dependent, α is main
β α	

4.3 OTHER NOTES

Modern Hepburn romanisation has been used in this paper, compare part IV of Frellesvig 2010 (p. 377 forward). In line with the phonemic approach of this romanisation style, は is rendered *-wa* and を is rendered *-o*. There are no occurrences of the Kansai or female emphatic *-wa*, though these would be rendered *wà*. Long vowels are given by doubles (*ii*, *oo*).

Where possible, I have chosen to use English prepositional equivalents to the case particles. Put another way, rather than write DAT (dative) for *ni*, I have in most cases put an appropriate English preposition. I have found that doing so makes the meaning more

accessible, and stops grammatical details obscuring the overall picture. Dealing with a lot of text often allows one to get what general meaning a word has without being bound up in the specific term. Cases, on the other hand, although they are largely similar, have some uses that differ between languages, and it would be easy to become trapped in the mindset of one language or the other. Rather than inviting this confusion, I have focussed on the semantics rather than the grammar. This is also because Norwegian is largely order-syntactic, not case-syntactic, and I am pursuing a connection, not a definitive schema.

I have limited my analysis to a few types. The reason for this can be seen in the following, which is a full analysis of a sentence in Norwegian and its Japanese translation.

Source:	<i>Det</i>	<i>var</i>	<i>jeg</i>	<i>som</i>	<i>fikk</i>	<i>straffen.</i>
Trans-literation:	it	was	I	that	received	the-punishment
Syntactic categories	EXPL. PRON	V _{COP.PST}	1P.PRON. NOM	REL. PRON	V _{TR.PST}	N.DEF
Interpersonal analysis	SUBJECT	FINITE	SUBJ	PRED.FIN	COMPLEMENT	SUBJECT
			COMPLEMENT			
Experiential analysis			Actor		Pr: material	Goal
Textual analysis	Theme			Rheme		

TABLE 1: FULL ANALYSIS OF NORWEGIAN SENTENCE

Source:	その	罰を	受ける	のは	わし	だった
Romanisation:	<i>sono</i>	<i>batsu-o</i>	<i>uke.ru</i>	<i>no-wa</i>	<i>washi</i>	<i>da.tta</i>
Trans-literation:	that	punishment	receive	one	I	was
Syntactic categories	DEM.DET	N-D.O	V _{TR.NPST}	NMZ- <i>wa</i>	1P.PRON	COP.PST
Interpersonal analysis	COMPLEMENT		PRED.FIN			
	SUBJECT				CMPL	FINITE
Experiential analysis	Goal		Pr: material		Actor	
Textual analysis	Theme				Rheme	

TABLE 2: FULL ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH SENTENCE

Immediately, we can observe—and it will be obvious from the content of 7.2.3.2—that the experiential metafunction will produce almost exactly the same results for a language. There may indeed be something to the analysis of transitivity-vs.-intransitivity tendencies in both Norwegian and Japanese in contrast to English, but that is not the topic of this paper. Similarly, I will not be assigning syntactic categories for all the constituents of sample sentences. The focus this study is not to assign values, but to look for possible similarities. Imposing a framework before may, in this instance, be counter-productive.

There is a paper on the numerous different ways ‘embedded’, ‘dependent’, and ‘subordinate’ are used in describing the hierarchal ordering of sentences (Jendraschek, 2007), which shows that there is considerable overlapping use. Thus, in the interest of clarity, I will specify the terminology used in this paper (see 7.2).

4.4 SOURCE ABBREVIATIONS

Please see bibliography for full details.

KM	<i>Kabalmysteriet</i>	SD	<i>Se Deg Ikke Tilbake</i>
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5 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to examine the possibility of similarities between Norwegian and Japanese. It goes without saying that there are *some* similarities, as there are between nearly all natural languages. Of course, my goal is not to verify such a mundane fact, but rather to attempt to find significant or useful similarities between the languages.

Both are nominative accusative languages, and while Norwegian is quite a synthetic language when compared to English, it is nevertheless nowhere near agglutinative syntax languages like Japanese. Norwegian is similar to other Germanic languages in that the finite verbal is confined to the second position, while the Japanese verbal is restricted to sentence final position (if we grant that the position of particles like *-yo* and *-ne* is called post-final). Norwegian has quite strictly ordered syntax, while Japanese has scrambling. Finally, Japanese has the much-debated topic-comment structure.³

How, then, should it be possible for these languages to share anything other than basic linguistic traits? Yet, that is precisely the point. Any similarities that should obtain between the two might reasonably be thought to exist between any two languages. Certainly, it is entirely speculative, but I did notice some small things that spurred me to further investigation. In addition, like many people who deal with linguistics in this age of computers, the idea of UPG or Universal Parseable Grammar appeals to be greatly.⁴ With that in mind, I began this paper.

The inspiration I had came from watching Japanese movies and reading Japanese novels. In particular, I noticed a number of words and phrases that matched their Norwegian counterparts well, sometimes better than their English counterparts. As far as the single words go, they are likely from the mass import of Western terminology during the Meiji period. To be precise, a lot of technical vocabulary concerning chemistry and medicine came to Japanese from German, the same source that Norwegian had for most of its scientific terminology. Therefore that *surstoff* ‘sour substance’ in Norwegian is 酸素 or *sanso* ‘sour element/substance’, as they both come from the German *Sauerstoff* ‘sour substance’.

³ I have some ideas regarding topic-comment and *-wa/-ga*, as I’m sure most Japanese linguists do. Mine are mentioned briefly in **Error! Reference source not found.**

⁴ Simply put, it is a grammar that allows correct computational parsing of natural language. Google does something similar already, with its statistical translation engine. This approach, however, posits a model of language that will accommodate all uses that may arise though ‘understanding’ the semantic or informational value of statements.

However, one does see things like the preference for adnominal or appositional use of adjectives, rather than predicate use of adjectives. Now, while this is almost gone from modern Norwegian, it can be found in novels and more conservative language scenarios. In Japanese it also seems to be dwindling, but it is still common to find people who prefer *kare-wa yasashii otoko da ne* 'he is a nice man' to *kare-wa yasashii ne* 'he is nice'. The same can be found in Norwegian: *han er en snill mann* compared to *han er snill*. Of course, it could be argued that these sentences express different thoughts, but the prevalence of one construction over the other is what fascinated me.

On the subject of constructions, the Japanese construction *koto-ni naru* 'it has been decided that/it is now the case that' drew my attention, as what appears to be the exact same construction appears in Norwegian as well: *det er blitt til at*, with the same meaning. All three versions, Norwegian, Japanese, and English, have the dummy pronoun 'it'. Technically, the Japanese word *koto* means thing, but it doesn't appear to add the meaning 'thing' in this use. Alternatively, one might point out that there is an English version of this phrase, namely 'it's a thing'. Now, this may be a conservative view of language on my part, but that expression strikes me as very new, while *koto-ni naru* and *det er blitt til at* seem to have a better basis in traditional writing. Of course, one often sees what one wants to see, which is why I have written this paper: to attempt to verify or falsify this idea.

In carrying out this study, I hoped to find more similarities between Norwegian and Japanese. Hopefully, these similarities would allow for some extrapolation or generalization, so that the information could feed back into theory, allowing for greater understanding and improvement of our models of language.

As I will mention later, simple 'looking for similarities' is a ludicrously wide-reaching task, and I should think one that is not within the scope of anything less than a career, if it is to be approached seriously. With that in mind, this study has selected a small corpus and a small but numerous textual construction too search for.

6 SOURCES

6.1 SAMPLES

The selection of samples is vital in any serious paper. While much important work is done in largely theoretical spaces, proof beyond intuition must be found for theories to have more than academic value. Some theories and models rely heavily on a limited number of examples, often serving expansive theoretical frameworks and explanations of exceptions. Naturally, seasoned linguists have experience with languages, which gives them a basis on which to formulate their theories. I do not. For that reason, I have chosen to analyse large texts, in order to increase my chance of noticing any correlation between the Japanese and Norwegian formulations that might obtain.

What sources to use, then? Optimally, I would be on the lookout for as natural representations of language of possible to compare. The challenge would be in finding congruent formulations. Doing interviews or having people describe a short video clip or series of pictures might yield similar expressions, but would they yield something that could be called the same? Statistically, I would think it probable that a large enough selection of people, given a sufficiently (un)specific series of questions or images, would produce largely consistent descriptions. But this would require a large number of respondents and, presumably, considerable trial and error in creating questions/images that could be answered/described congruently in both Norwegian and Japanese. Ironically, there is also a danger from the personal variation inherent in individual language use. Personal preferences or idiosyncrasies, while not necessarily ungrammatical, make the task of normalising the results to look for correlations more difficult.

Text, specifically published text, tends to follow more rigid guidelines, and translated texts carry the added bonus of (hopefully) expressing the same information in a congruent formulation. Originally, I thought that technical texts might be a good source of similar information expressed in similar fashions, but I was rightly advised that technical texts are rife with jargon and idiosyncrasies of their own. However, fiction, though full of pitfalls of its own, fills the criteria of expressing the same information the same way across languages. In addition, because it is generally written to appeal to a wide audience, it sees little use of specialised words.

A total of four texts were analysed in this study, a 100-page excerpt from each of two Norwegian novels and their published Japanese translations. In order to avoid the obviously contaminating effects of indirect translation, the number of texts available was severely limited. On the basis of the above criteria, I selected two fiction novels: *Kabalmysteriet* by Jostein Gaarder and *Se Deg Ikke Tilbake* by Karin Fossum (henceforth KM and SD). Their respective genres, young adult fiction and detective fiction, also reinforce the avoidance of jargon and difficult language that I posited as a general trait of fiction above.

6.2 PROCESSING THE SAMPLES

In order to effectively analyse such large quantities of text, I felt it best to use computers to cut down the time needed. To that end, I scanned the first 100 pages of all four books, and used optical character recognition (OCR) software to make editable text out of the images. Rather a considerable amount of time went into correcting the mistakes made by the OCR software, in particular the Japanese, which would have benefitted from being scanned at a better resolution.

Once converted into editable text, the next step was to match up the texts to one another, line by line. The reason for this may be immediately apparent, but when looking for the corresponding sentence in a translation, it is quite easy to lose one's place. Given that the total amount of text was around 2500 lines, looking for correspondence incrementally seemed a rather poor idea. The text first broken up at sentence boundaries using the editor gVIM, then matched manually in Microsoft Excel, as sentence boundaries were far from 1:1.

Analysing all of the text piece by piece would be far too large an undertaking for the scope of this thesis, and so my advisor suggested that I focus on the Norwegian term *det* 'it; that', which has some interesting traits despite its apparently simplicity.

In the matched spreadsheet form, I used a Visual Basic for Applications script to mark out all sentences in the Norwegian text containing *det*. This revealed that over 2% of either text was the word 'det' (KM: 3%, SD: 2.21%), which amounted to nearly 700 occurrences of *det*. On further discussion with my advisor, we settled on the narrower *det er/var* 'it/that is/was'⁵, which yielded a far more manageable 288 occurrences.

⁵ The reverse of these, *er/var det*, was also included.

Of these, it was decided that the most interesting would be syntactic expletives, narrowing the number of occurrences further. I compared these with their Japanese translations to see if there were any consistent correlations.

7 GRAMMAR

7.1 NORWEGIAN GRAMMAR

Before settling specifically on *det er*, I researched *det* itself, to gain a better understanding of its various functions in the language. The sources I used were the de facto standard reference grammar, Farlund, Vanneboe, Lie 1997, the University of Oslo Online Dictionary of bokmål (standard Norwegian), and a paper which deals exhaustively with the various types of *det*, Borthen 2001. Based on these, I created an exhaustive type-listing of *det*.

7.1.1 OVERVIEW OF THE *DET* IN NORWEGIAN GRAMMAR REFERENCES

7.1.1.1 *DET* IN FAARLUND, VANNEBOE, LIE

Given that a reference grammar is not a dictionary, no explicit definition nor exhaustive listing of *det* is provided in the volume. However, all its roles are – as far as I am aware – mentioned under the various headings where it is pertinent. The index lists 14 pages or page groups for *det*, which variously lead to the sections on personal pronouns, pronoun phrases, ‘formal subject’ (dummy subject/expletive pronoun), semantic roles, presentational sentences, the passive, dependent clauses, and clefting, not to mention the introduction (Faarlund, et al., 1997, pp. 22, 316f, 326-337, 339f, 678ff, 687, 827, 832, 845-847, 1015, 1025, 1088ff). I will examine each of these in turn in **Error! Reference source not found.**

7.1.1.2 *DET* IN THE DICTIONARY

The University of Oslo Online Dictionary of bokmål defines *det* as:

1. *personal pronoun, 3rd person, singular, neutral*; 2. *demonstrative pronoun, 3rd person, singular, neutral, stressed*; 3. *indefinite pronoun, 3rd person, singular, neutral* i) *formal subject*, ii) *predicate*, iii) *formal object*; 4. *pre-posed definite article*.

While the online dictionary is an invaluable tool, I noted a few points that seemed to be inconsistent with what I have read and know of grammar. The first point, though more a matter of taste than of accuracy, is that the splitting in entry 3 of the syntactic expletive’s roles into subject and object. As this is not done for the entries 1, 2, and 3, one might easily assume that this only applies to 3, even though all three can be both subject and object.

Another point I noted is that entry 2 does not differentiate between the demonstrative pronoun and the demonstrative determiner. Both *det huset kjøper vi* ‘let’s buy that house’,

where *det* is a determiner, and *hva er det for noe* ‘what is that’, where *det* is a pronoun, are listed under this entry. Furthermore – though this is an assertion – I contend that sub-entry *iii* under 3, indicating that *det*, when used as a predicate, is acting as an indefinite article, belongs under 2, as it is anaphoric deixis.

Lastly, I would say that *det*’s ability to function as a nominalizer/NP-head is important enough to warrant a separate entry as a (demonstrative) determiner. Faarlund, Vanneboe, Lie place the NP-head attribute under the heading for personal pronouns, though it seems to me that it might fit better under the aforementioned determiner entry. It is also worth noting that 4, which gives German as the origin of the pre-posed definite article, seems to conflate the fixed expression where this occurs with cases of the demonstrative determiner. In the case of a demonstrative determiner, when physical deixis does not obtain, I believe verbal determination of reference is necessary.

To give an example, I propose that it is the definite article we see in the fixed expression *det gode* ‘the good’ in *han sloss for det gode* ‘he fought on the side of good’. Here, since ‘good’ as a concept has universal reference, no identifying reference is necessary. Conversely, I believe that the determiner that heads *det første* ‘the first’ in *det første jeg gjorde var å smile* ‘the first (thing) I did was [to] smile’, something that becomes apparent when this sentence is contrasted with *?det første var å smile* ‘?the first was [to] smile’. The former may stand on its own; the latter requires a situation where enumeration is occurring.

7.1.1.3 DET IN BORTHEN

While I began my research with online resource described above, Borthen 2001 deals with another de facto standard, *Norsk Ordbok*. According to her, it specifies six large categories and a number of smaller ones for a total of 24 various species of *det*. She brings intuition, an efficiency assumption, and cognitive theory to bear and reduces these to seven categories: the definite article, the demonstrative determiner, the expletive pronoun, the unstressed neutral pronoun, the stressed (demonstrative) neutral pronoun, an identifying *det*, and a predicate *det*.

While her categories agree with Faarlund, Vanneboe, Lie and seem to be quite right, she does not divide the paper into sections, which makes her analysis a little hard to follow at times. There also so seems to be some overlap between her categories, for example between the ‘identifying *det*’ and the expletive pronoun and the unstressed neutral pronoun, all three of which can appear in the same construction: {*det* VÆRE NP} ‘it BE NP’. In particular,

unstressed neutral pronoun *det* and ‘identifying *det*’ are identical for neutral gender referents. Borthen does provide the caveat that this exact construction has special properties, which cause it to appear in several categories.

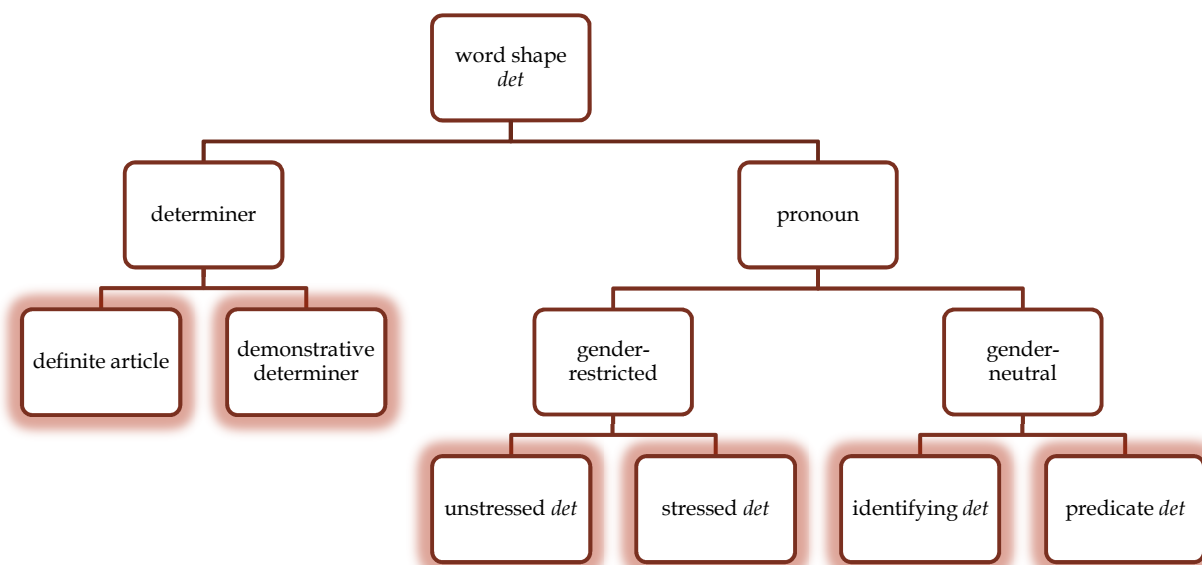


FIGURE 1: BORTHEN'S HIERARCHY OF *DET*, DEFINING CATEGORIES HIGHLIGHTED

7.1.2 *DET* IN THIS PAPER

I found Borthen's hierarchy very good, and have adopted it for this paper. Since the focus of this paper, *det er/var*, is not restricted on gender (being a specific version of $\{det \forall \text{ERE}\}$), the category division between gender-bound (stressed and unstressed neutral pronoun) and non-gender-bound ('identifying' and 'predicate') *det* need not be observed, and all can be treated as 'identifying'.

7.1.3 THE VARIETIES OF *DET ER*

Combining Borthen's 7-lexeme division with Faarlund et al.'s treatment of the semantic and syntactic roles of *det*, I came up with the following divisions of *det er*: **impersonal**, **vague**, **infinitive**, **dependent**, **presentational**, **cleft presentational**, and **cleft focussing**.

Since I am examining expletive and near-expletive uses of *det*, the impersonal, presentational, and clefted uses seem to be the most fitting types to examine closely, as when *det* refers to infinitive or dependent clauses, it is accepted that this is a

pronominal use. The larger argument is then whether ‘preparatory it’ or dummy pronouns in general are truly pronominal, or semantically empty, the answer to which seems to vary by grammar. Regardless, I have examined all types for what answers they might yield.

7.1.3.1 IMPERSONAL *DET ER*

Impersonal *det er* is the expletive use of *det er*. Here, *det* is semantically null, and serves only to fill the subject required by Norwegian syntax, defined by Faarlund et al. as ‘the nominal that occupies the second slot when it does not occupy the first’ (Faarlund, et al., 1997, p. 674). They refer to this use of *det* as the ‘formal subject’ (cf. dummy subject/preparatory it). Conversely, though not salient in this thesis, the expletive pronoun in the object position (often as an object predicate) is termed the ‘formal object’. The ‘formal’ likely derives from ‘formality’.

This is nearly the same category as 7.1.3.4, but the distinction drawn by Faarlund et al. is that impersonal sentences are those that denote a state or sensed event (p. 679).

<i>Det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>snart</i>	<i>mørkt</i>	<i>ute</i>				
it	is	soon	dark	out				
‘it’ll soon be dark out’								
<i>Det</i>	<i>var</i>	<i>fryktelig</i>		<i>kaldt</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>natt</i>		
it	was	terribly		cold.NEUT	in	night		
‘it was terribly cold last night’								
<i>Det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>vel</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>før</i>	<i>eg</i>	<i>også</i>	<i>oppdager ...</i>	
it	is	well	just	before	I	also	discover	
‘I’m probably just about to discover ..., as well’								

FIGURE 2: IMPERSONAL *DET*, EXAMPLES FROM FAARLUND ET AL.

7.1.3.2 VAGUE *DET ER*

While this may seem inaccurate, Faarlund et al. explicitly mention that some referents of *det* are vague, verging on the expletive (p. ibid.). Although they do provide examples, they do not define any formal criteria for identifying the vague uses of *det* as a pro-form.

My intuition, from the examples given, is that this *det* refer to something not explicitly active in the discourse, but which could easily be identified by adding a dependent clause after the NP (making them focussing cleft sentences). An important thing to note is that, in

these cases, the *det* cannot be replaced by the added dependent clause. Three examples given in Faarlund et al., with my criterion clauses added:

<i>Det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>berre</i>	<i>meg</i>	[<i>som banker på</i>]		
it	is	only	me	that	knocks on	
‘it	is	only	me	[knocking]’		
<i>Det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>dårlege tider</i>	[<i>vi lever i</i>]			
it	is	poor	times	we	live	in
‘these are hard times [we’re living in]’						
<i>Ja,</i>	<i>det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>så</i>	<i>mange ting</i>	[<i>jeg kunne tenkt meg</i>]	
yes	it	is	so	many things	I could thought	me
‘Well, there’s a lot of things [I’d like]’						

FIGURE 3: VAGUE *DET*, EXAMPLES FROM FAARLUND ET AL.

7.1.3.3 INFINITIVE & DEPENDENT *DET ER*

Here, *det* has a pronominal function, referring cataphorically to a deferred infinitive clause or dependent clause subject. While this use of *det* is not my main focus, it was necessary to identify these sentences in order to find sentences that are within the scope of this paper.

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7.1.3.4 PRESENTATIONAL *DET ER*

Presentational *det er* sentences, as the name implies, *present* new information, sometimes also referred to as *produce* or *create*. This role is given the name *focus* in (Heycock, 2008) and (Kuroda, 2005), and Heycock mentions this being based on Vallduví's use of the pair *focus* and *ground*. Focus is examined in 7.1.3.5.

Presentational sentences with an expletive pronoun subject and a 'potential subject': {*det* VÆRE NP_{SUBJ}}, are most the common and least marked type in Norwegian (p. 1015). In keeping with the divisions made by Faarlund et al., this category was restricted to sentences with existential and locative meanings, in contrast to 7.1.3.1. They note that this is because Norwegian tends away from heavy subjects and new information as subject, except when the

entire utterance is new, in which case it is usually limited to a single predicate (p. 692). This can also be seen in sentences with a deferred infinitive or dependent clause subject.

<i>Det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>få</i>	<i>stoler</i>	<i>her</i>	
it	is	too	few	chairs	here	
'there are too few chairs here'						
<i>Det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>en</i>	<i>flekk</i>	<i>på</i>	<i>kjolen</i>	<i>din</i>
it	is	a	stain	on	dress.DEF	yours
'there's a stain on your dress'						
<i>Her</i>	<i>var</i>	<i>det</i>	<i>mange</i>	<i>hyggelige</i>	<i>mennesker</i>	
here	was	there	many	nice	people	
'There are a lot of nice people here/What a lot nice ppl ...'						

FIGURE 4: PRESENTATIONAL *DET*, EXAMPLES FROM FAARLUND ET AL.

7.1.3.5 CLEFT *DET ER*

There are two types of standard cleft sentence in Norwegian: focussing and presentational. It is worth noting that pseudo-cleft in Norwegian is also accomplished with *det*, specifically on the form *det S_{REL} S_{MAIN}*, where *S_{MAIN}* is the main clause, and the *S_{REL}* is the dependent clause (which would be head by a *wh*-word in English).

7.1.3.5.1 FOCUSING CLEFT

Focussing cleft performs raising, ie. it emphasises some element of the dependent clause or the entire dependent clause, especially if the entire sentence is new (pp. 691f, 1088f). An example of this is given below:

<i>Hva er det som bråker sånn?</i>						
'What's making all that noise?'						
<i>Det</i>	<i>er</i>	<u><i>Nils</i></u>	<u><i>som</i></u>	<u><i>lager</i></u>	<u><i>mat</i></u>	
it	is	Nils	that	makes	food	
'it's Nils, making food/it's Nils' making food'						

FIGURE 5: AN ALL-NEW FOCUSING CLEFT SENTENCE (FAARLUND ET AL.)

The above may be read either as Nils taking a rising intonation, or the entire underlined clause taking a rising intonation, which gives the respective meanings.

Focussing cleft may raise any bound part of the sentence, but in the case of the subject, the dependent clause must take the relative *som* 'that'. For other raised nominals, *som* is optional. If the raised element is an unbound adverbial, the dependent clause may take the subjunction *at*, but likely will not. Raised bound adverbials and verb phrases do not take a subjunction. In the case of raised VPs, the pro-verb *gjøre* 'do' replaces the raised verb (with the exception of existence/possession verbs), which in turn may retain in its finite form or change to a bare infinitive.

<i>Det</i>	<i>var</i>	<i>stjal/stjele</i>	<i>han</i>	<i>gjorde</i>		
it	was	stole/steal	he	did		
'STEAL is what he did' (note: pseudo-cleft vs. cleft)						
<i>Det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>ikke</i>	<i>hun</i>	<i>som</i>	<i>bør</i>	<i>dø</i>
It	is	not	she	that	should	die
'it's not her who should die' (note: <i>wh</i> -cleft vs. cleft)						

FIGURE 6: FOCUSING CLEFT

The raised element is focussed, and represents new information and an upper limit/exhaustive listing.⁶ Conversely, the relative clause is given, meaning it is already active in the discourse space. Only known information can be left unrealised (p. 691), which correlates with the unrealised dependent clauses I suggest in 7.1.3.2.

Intuitively, I would also like to note that there is an obvious aspect of contrast here, even when not explicit.

7.1.3.5.2 PRESENTATIONAL CLEFT

Presentational cleft sentences in Norwegian are suggested by Faarlund et al. to be yet another product of Norwegian reluctance to use new information as the subject (p. 1088ff). The main difference between presentational and focussing cleft is that there is no contrastive aspect in present. Additionally, only the subject may be raised, as anything else results in a focussing sentence. Keeping (Heycock, 2008)'s division of *-wa* into contrastive and non-contrastive in mind during sample analysis might yield interesting results.

⁶ This seems an interesting parallel to Kuroda's theory of the 'exhaustive listing'-*ga*.

7.2 SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS

7.2.1 REASON FOR USE

My previous application of the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) framework to Japanese was successful, and I am hoping that this application will be, as well. SFL seems to be an approach rapidly gaining favour, as (Teruya, 2007), (Thomson & Armour, 2009), and (Narrog, 2009) – though Narrog uses FG, rather than SFL – have all been published quite recently.

The clefts (discussed in 7.1.3.5) are called predicated Theme in the SFL framework. Note that due to the syntax being studied in this paper (ie. *det er*), it will not be possible to analyse pseudo-cleft, for although *det* appears in both, the *det er* syntax does not appear in pseudo-cleft sentences.

The existential and locative aspects of *VÆRE* is divided into material (locative) and existential processes.

7.2.2 NOTES ON SFL

It is common practice in SFL to capitalise larger categories or specially understood terms, to differentiate the terms from other understandings and colloquial use. Caret (^) is used to indicate ordering in SFL, on the form of: first^second. For dependency, Greek letters are used, with β denoting the subordinated clause and α denoting the dominating clause. What are often called phrases clauses in other grammars are generally called **groups**, such that NP = nominal group or NML.GP (Thompson, 2004, p. 199).

7.2.3 THREE DIMENSIONS

SFL takes a holistic approach to analysing text, ever leery of solely constituent-based analysis. Seeking to understand the pragmatic, semantic, and grammatical reasons for text being the way it is, three dimensions or ‘metafunctions’ are employed: the interpersonal, the experiential, and the textual. The main reason for this multi-partite approach is to attempt to glean the structure of real language use, and not to assume a logically perfect system that is imperfectly deployed. Though, to be fair, the numerous subdivisions of SFL seem to contravene the assumption that a language system is rationally concise. This is explained by ‘systems’, which are hierarchies that organize mutually exclusive choices, making the task of using language a limited selection problem at each level. I will now describe the metafunctions.

7.2.3.1 THE INTERPERSONAL METAFUNCTION

7.2.3.1.1 BRIEF OVERVIEW

As the name suggests, the interpersonal metafunction analyses how text is used to interact. It centres on the concept of Mood and modality. Halliday breaks down language interaction into a two-dimensional space, one axis of which gives what is being done and the other what is being done with it (Thompson, 2004, p. 47).

<i>Role in exchange</i>	<i>Commodity exchanged</i>	
	goods and services	information
	giving	statement
	demanding	question

TABLE 3: THE MOOD FIELD

Which one of these actions is being performed is expressed through the **Mood**. Hence, when dealing with information, the Mood may be declarative or interrogative. Likewise, when dealing with goods and services, the Mood is either imperative or suggestive.

For most of these Moods, there are modalities, which provide degrees of determinacy. For information Moods, the modalities are probability and usuality; these are often grouped together under the term ‘epistemic modality’ in other grammars, but are called **modalisations** in SFL. Similarly, the modalities often titled ‘deontic’ in other grammars are broken down into commissive, volitive, and jussive **modulations**. Of course, pragmatics is a huge and interesting discipline, but these are the main types, as given by Thompson (p. 67f).

7.2.3.1.2 INTERPERSONAL CONSTITUENTS

The interpersonal constituents are few and relatively easy to identify and order. They are: **Subject**, **Finite**, **Predicator**, **Complement**, and **Adjunct** (Thompson, 2004, pp. 49, 60).

The first two, **Subject** and **Finite**, are grouped together and referred to as the **Mood**, as mentioned above. This is because they often provide a strong indication of the Mood in operation. For example, a sentence with no Subject and a present Finite indicates the imperative Mood, while a sentence starting with Finite^Subject is has the interrogative Mood.

In English, it is common for the Finite to be fused with the Predicator because of the inflectional morphology of the verb. We see this in the simple past of ‘flee’, ‘fled’, in contrast to the present perfect ‘has fled’, where the Finite is separated out in the auxiliary verb.

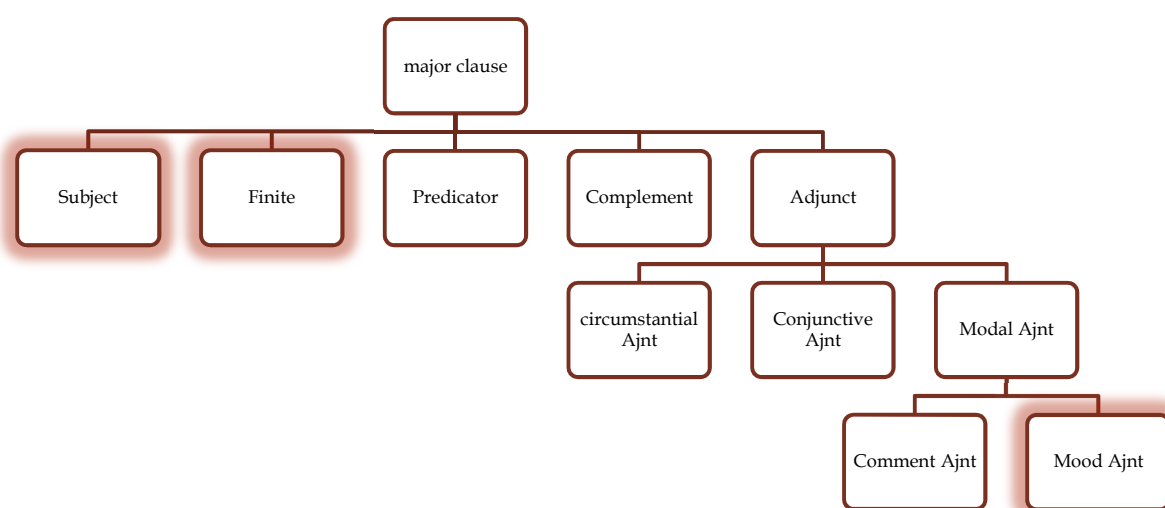


Figure 7: The interpersonal constituent hierarchy, Mood highlighted

The Finite provides the primary tense, ie. when the proposition is valid in relation to the speaker's timeframe. For example, a Mood of 'she is' signals that the statement is valid when presented (uttered or written). Through the use of modal auxiliary verbs as Finite, the speaker can nuance to what extent he or she presents the statement as valid (Thompson, p. 53), like in 'we may' and 'he could'. This modality can extend to the emphatic or insistent positive 'I *do* like eggs' or the negative polarity through inclusion of the negative auxiliary as a Mood Adjunct (see below).

The remaining three elements are collectively referred to as the **Residue**, and are defined by exclusion. Complements, of which there may be none, one, or two as the sentence allows, encompass both traditional complements and objects. They are defined as elements that could serve as Subject, but are not currently doing so. Accordingly, if the voice of the sentence were to change, one Complement and the Subject would swap places.

Conversely, Adjuncts can *not* be the Subject, and are often realised as adverbial groups. It is important to note that Adjuncts may precede the Subject and Finite in the sentence order. They cover a wide range of possibilities, and are divided into **circumstantial Adjuncts**, which provide information about the process occurring in the clause, **Conjunctive Adjuncts**, which provide textual cohesion, and Modal Adjuncts, which are sub-divided into two further types, **Comment Adjuncts** and **Mood Adjuncts**. Comment Adjuncts give the speaker's attitude to what is being said – provide a meta-commentary – and Mood Adjuncts, not surprisingly, inform the Mood (together with the Subject and the Finite).

Lastly, **Predicators** consist of the remainder of the verbal group that isn't the Finite. It provides the secondary tense, aspect, and voice. That is to say, the Predicate may indicate whether a verb group is completed, starting, continuing, active or passive, or the like. With the verbs 'be' and 'have', things are more complicated, and there is room to argue that there is no Predicate in such sentences (Thompson, 2004, p. 60f). Clauses without a Predicate are called **minor clauses**, while clauses with one are called **major clauses**.

Constituent	Signals	Meaning
Finite	Primary tense	Whether the statement is valid at time of speech
	Epistemic modality	To what degree statement is true
	Emotive modality	How the speaker feels about the statement
Pred	Secondary tense	Whether the process is finished at the referred time
	Aspect	Whether the process is starting, continuing, achieved, etc.
	Voice	Whether the process is active or passive

If we return to the Mood for a moment, we can see—especially considering Mood Adjuncts—that it provides information on tense, polarity, and modality. Thompson writes that 'any Finite is inherently positive or negative in polarity', remarking that the addition of negative auxiliaries are necessary because the negative polarity is by its very nature marked (p. 65f). He then goes on to say that, surprisingly, Mood Adjuncts can reverse the polarity of the clause, while the Finite remains positive (p. 66). I think this might be a misprint, as rather than the Finite being inherently positive or negative, it is the entire Mood that is positive by default until modified to the contrary. One last concern about this is that there is, without a doubt, a long discussion to be had about whether negation of a process is the same as a process performed on empty set (see table 2), but I not delve further into that here.

'I didn't eat any beans' ~='I ate no beans'
 'I didn't meet anyone' ~='I met no one'
 'I didn't get anything done' ~='I got nothing done'

Figure 8: Negation vs. empty sets

Surprisingly, | however, | twelve hours later, | Joshua | had | surreptitiously | given | Mary | the bag.
 COMM AJNT | CJNT AJNT | CIRC AJNT | SUBJ | FIN | CIRC AJNT | PRED | CMPL | CMPL

Figure 9: Interpersonal analysis

7.2.3.2 THE EXPERIENTIAL METAFUNCTION

7.2.3.2.1 BRIEF OVERVIEW

More in the realms of traditional grammatical analysis, the experiential metafunction looks at the constituent elements of a clause and looks at their mutual interdependency. In other words, it analyses who is doing what to whom and how.

In contrast to the interpersonal metafunction, the experiential aspect does not take into account whether a proposition is true, the speaker's attitude, or what they hope to accomplish. Nor does it give any outline of the how blocks of text fit together. Rather, it simply views text as referring to the world, and deconstructs how that text interrelates. As a result, Conjunctive and comment Adjuncts are disregarded on this approach.

7.2.3.2.2 THE EXPERIENTIAL CONSTITUENTS

The experiential constituents are **processes**, **participants**, and **circumstances** (Thompson, 2004, p. 87). Experiential circumstances are circumstantial Adjuncts (p. 109) in the interpersonal metafunction, ie. any sentence constituents that indicate time, manner, location, etc., but do not form part of the process. Hence, 'the prune' in 'she ate the prune yesterday' is a **goal**, and 'yesterday' a circumstance. There are a number of circumstantial categories: location, manner, cause, contingency, accompaniment, roles, matter, and angle.

Participants are not necessarily animate entities; they can often just as easily be objects or phenomena. Processes are, of course, what is occurring. Nevertheless, it is vital to point out that far from all processes 'happen' to a participant. For example, it would be an odd formulation, to say that 'existing happens' to anything, or that 'laughing happened' to anything else. I have listed the process types and their attendant participants in table 3.

Process type	Description	Participants
material	'doing' (transitive) 'happening' (ergative)	Actor, [Goal] [Agent], Medium
mental: emotive, cognitive, perceptive, desiderative	'internal actions'	Senser, Phenomenon
relational: attributive identifying by class identifying by	'description'	Carrier, Attribute Token, Value Identifier, Identified

specification		
verbal	'speech'	Sayer, [Receiver], [Verbiage]
behavioural	'manifesting internal action'	Behaver
existential	'being'	Existent

Table 4: The experiential constituents (Thompson)

There are some simple points to be made about each process type. Material processes are typically the more traditional 'doing word'-type verbs, involving physical actions. While material processes may be rendered in both active and passive voices, they are not reversible. That is to say, while a man may smoke a cigar, and the cigar may be smoked by him, but the cigar cannot smoke the man.⁷ Hence, material processes always have an **Actor** (though not necessarily always realised), and if the process is done 'to' something, that something is the **Goal** (Thompson, 2004, p. 90f). There is also the less well-defined participant **Scope**, which is used of circumstantial elements that are an extension of the verb (p. 109). Material processes may also be divided into ergative and transitive, see below.

7.2.3.2.3 THE PROCESS TYPES

Mental processes take place within an animate participant, called the **Senser**. That which is being sensed is called the **Phenomenon**. In English, mental processes are typically rendered in the simple form, whereas material processes are often in the PROgressive form. Mental processes are reversible, such that, to use the above example, the man may like the cigar, and the cigar may please the man, which are both in the active voice (p. 92ff).

Two participants that are put into a relationship with one another are part of a relational process. If the participants are an **Attribute** and the **Carrier** to which we assign it, the relational process is attributive. An identifying relational process, on the other hand, is when we 'identify one entity in terms of another'. Attributive relational processes are not reversible, but identifying ones are, since we are equating one thing with another. The more specific entity being described is termed the **Token** and the more general entity **Value** (p. 96ff).⁸ Another approach to the identifying relational process is to look at which entity was in evidence first. The entity or quantity already in question is the **Identified**, and it is equated

⁷ Without going completely Lewis Carroll, that is.

⁸ This presumes that all identifying relative processes will have a general and a specific element. There seems to be no writing on sentences on the form 'John was actually Jane', though I appreciate the likely paucity of such sentences.

to an **Identifier**, which often contains the stressed element of the clause, an aspect which relates to the indication of newness (as opposed to givenness) through stress. Lastly, I will make note of the three types of relationship which can be given: intensive, which ascribes qualities; circumstantial, which ascribes a temporal or spatial quantity; and possessive, which describes ownership. On this basis, possession is deemed a attributive relative process, wherein either possessor and possessed may be Carrier or Attribute (p. 118ff).

The next kind of process is verbal, and covers all acts of utterance. The aptly-named **Sayer** is responsible for **Verbiage**, which may be intended for a **Receiver** and/or aimed at a **Target**. A distinction is made that Verbiage only covers indirect speech, whereas reported or direct speech is held to be projected, and as such, not part of the projecting clause. Thompson uses the analogy of a projecting clause being a frame to the projected clause's picture: 'a single, complex unit, but neither is actually part of the other.'⁹

Something of a cross between material and mental processes, behavioural processes are the physical expression of something internal. The only real clues we have to the internal origin of the actions is our knowledge of the action itself, ie. semantic, as opposed to the speech marks and subjunctions which accompany verbal processes. Behavioural processes have a **Behaver**, and if the process is actualised by means of something—particularly if that something is what makes the process behavioural—this is called this called the **Behaviour** (Thompson, 2004, p. 103f).

Finally, there are existential processes, which apply to an **Existent**. Perhaps surprisingly, the verb 'exist' is not classed as existential, but material. This follows from 'happening' processes being thought of as material. So both 'exist' and 'arise' are taken to be material processes, as the actions are not being caused but occurring spontaneously.

As we see from the table above, participant sets for material processes are different depending on whether we are looking at an action as being first and foremost performed or taking place—the transitive aspect and the ergative aspect. Opinion is divided as to whether all processes in English can be analysed in ergative terms or only some verbs possess ergativity (Thompson, 2004, p. 135ff).

⁹ At this risk of sounding consistently contrary or sophomoric, I believe there is a case for projection being a part of projecting clauses. However, space & focus do not allow.

Note that the indirect objects of traditional grammar are called **Beneficiaries** in SFL. The Receiver of verbal processes is a specific type of this.¹⁰ Material processes may differentiate between **Client**—marked by ‘for’—and the aforementioned Recipient—marked by ‘to’.

¹⁰ Here we see the difference between *Target*: ‘She spoke highly of *you* ...’ and *Receiver*: ‘... to the boss.’ To be specific, ‘you’ is the direct, and ‘the boss’ is the indirect object.

7.2.3.3 THE TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION

7.2.3.3.1 BRIEF OVERVIEW

The third metafunction is what first enticed me to the SFL approach to Japanese linguistics. As the name implies, it deals with how the organisation of text governs the ‘unfolding language event’ (Thompson, 2004, p. 141) and vice versa. We can variously look at individual clauses, groups of clauses, or the entire language event. How these work together can be divided into **coherence** and **cohesion**.

In SFL, textual meaning is seen as arising through three devices: **repetition**, **conjunction**, and **thematization**. The former is not limited to lexical repetition, ie. continuous use of one term. Rather, it refers to endophoric deixis within the text—referencing entities and values already active in the language event. Although it is possible to avoid deixis, its absence can make communication quite cumbersome. Hence, repetition is a common device that allows meaning to flow through the conversation.

Next, we know that language is chronologically ordered by its very nature (words are spoken or written in some sequence), and while that order often gives some indication of the relationship between parts of a text, understanding depends upon textual markers that are not semantically significant on their own, but vital to the way information expressed is combined in the recipients brain. This is conjunction, the relationships between clauses, and is dealt with 0.

Perhaps not surprisingly, the circumstantial Adjuncts mentioned in 7.2.3.1.2 play a vital role in interrelating clauses. First, however, we should be clear as to what is meant by the various expressions ‘dependent’, ‘subordinate’, and ‘embedded’. The next section is a brief overview of the SFL terminology for other structures.

Before turning to that, however, I will mention thematization, which I will return to in 7.2.3.3.5. It involves the structuring of independent clauses and how information is presented to us at this level. It relates to both repetition and conjunction—repetition in that it is closely tied to what is active in the current scope of the language event, and conjunction in that presentation in relation to preceding, embedded, and following clauses can nuance how information is received. Before that, however, I will provide an overview of SFL terms of textual organisation.

7.2.3.3.2 BUT FIRST: THE RANK SCALE

SFL uses a concept called the **rank scale**, which is a formalisation of the notion of logical dependency in text. The idea starts with the definition of the morpheme—the smallest meaningful unit in a language (Thompson, 2004, p. 198).

Some morphemes are lexically free as-is, others require combination with other morphemes. At the level of free unit, morphemes are termed **words**. Words combine to form groups (phrases in generative grammars). As one or morphemes make up a word, so one or more words make up a **word group**, which is referred to by its type, eg. nominal group or verbal group. Verbal groups may be finite or non-finite. Groups may combine into **group complexes**. Groups and group complexes combine to form **clauses**, which like groups, may form complexes of their own.

A clause capable of standing on its own is called **independent** or **main**. I will refer to a clause as independent if it has no **dependent clauses**, and as **main clause** if it does. Two clauses standing in relation to one another¹¹ are referred to as a **clause complex**, wherein either both are equal (**parataxis**) or one is dependent on the other (**hypotaxis**) (Thompson, 2004, p. 21ff). I will only use Sentence of independent or main clauses bounded by final punctuation. Changing a clause from a paratactic to a hypotactic relationship is called **deranking** in SFL. Finally, any clause that is a constituent in another clause is said to be **embedded**.

A brief discussion concerning the nature of taxis follows, and section 0 continues the overview of the textual metafunction.

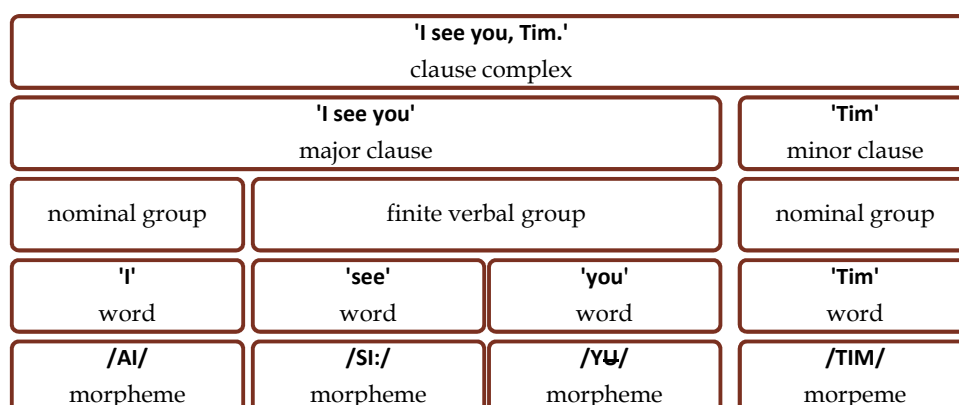


Figure 10: the rank scale

¹¹ Aphorisms and quotes may be the only clauses that are truly capable of standing on their own. They do, of course, occur in a social or historical contexts, but those aren't technically clause.

7.2.3.3.3 A BRIEF DISCUSSION OF TAXIS

The main difference between the two types of taxis, parataxis and hypotaxis—coordination and subordination—is the restrictions it places on the clause types and how that affects information structure.

I ask the question: ‘Is there a difference between conjunctions and adverbials when the clauses they govern are in the same relationship to one another?’ Let me clarify with an example. The English conjunctive adverb ‘therefore’, paratactic conjunction ‘so’, and hypotactic conjunction ‘because’ all mean ‘for that reason’. While there are, of course, reasons as to why they are not in the same grammatical category, even in modern grammars (Quirk, Fowler), the main reason seems to be the restriction on the kind of clause that can follow it and the which sentence in a relationship to which attaches.

	Hypotactic conjunction	Paratactic conjunction	Adverbial parataxis
Unmarked	‘I must stay, since you won’t go.’	‘You won’t go, so I must stay.’	‘You won’t go. Therefore, I must stay.’
Reversed (marked)	‘Since you won’t go, I must stay.’	Cannot be reversed with ‘so’	Cannot be reversed with ‘therefore’
w/Ellipsis	?‘Since you won’t go.’	?‘So, I must stay.’	?‘Therefore, I must stay.’

Table 5: subordinate and adverbial conjunction

‘Therefore’, as a conjunctive adverb, starts an independent clause, ‘so’, as a paratactic conjunction, follows one independent clause with another, and ‘since’, as a subordinating conjunction, **downranks**¹² its attendant clause to dependent. I agree that there is a much greater sense of division between two independent clauses coordinated by ‘therefore’ or ‘so’ than there is between a dependent clause headed by ‘because’ and its main clause. However, I would say that the nature of relationship between them is the same, and they serve the same function, only to different degrees. ‘So’, for example, does seem to provide as strong a separation as ‘therefore’, nor as close a connection as ‘since’. I am side-stepping one real difference: the non-reversability of the order of the clauses related paratactically in English.¹³ In this case, one might argue that in establishing causal relationships, indicating cause before effect is most natural (at least in this example, I don’t feel like reversal is especially marked).

¹² SFL terminology

¹³ Other difference between them are degree and what part of the causal relationship is marked As for the separation of degree, unless it is absolute, most syntactic classes comprise a range of possible values: ‘quite’, ‘very’, ‘extremely’; ‘penniless’, ‘poor’, ‘rich’; or ‘nudged’, ‘pushed’, ‘shoved’.

Alternately, one might propose that sentences with an interrelating word naturally follow the sentences they reference, and that hypotaxis alone allows for some specific reason, but I have no definitive answer.

Back to the point: ‘because’ becomes a part of the dependent clause, which as a whole, becomes part of the main clause. Converse, the preceding clause is not ‘drawn in’ to the clause using a conjunctive adverbial. Yet, virtually no language events occur in a vacuum¹⁴—there is almost always some sort of flow that begins or is being followed. Precisely that is my point. They serve the same function in the flow, despite their different integrations into larger stretches of language.

Why should taxes be different from adverbs? I would say that ‘because you won’t go’ and ‘therefore, I must stay’ are both equally absurd on their own.¹⁵ My reason for arguing this is that it offers a possible explanation for unrealised or phonetically null participants in both Norwegian and Japanese. The clause to which a conjunction or adverb attaches attains a special significance. Of course, how valuable we perceive information to be in an information structure will vary across users and contexts, but crucially, I think, the marked nature of clauses with a conjunction or adverb renders them special. Accordingly, when ellipsis occurs, marked sentences are less likely candidates. I offer this as an explanation as to why many Japanese sentences end with conjunctions like *-kara* and *-ga*, or the gerund of verbs: because unmarked responses can be logically extrapolated solely by their presence.

I believe that this can be seen in the results I have analysed in section 8. Above all, when considering the experiential metafunction, the difference between conjunctive and adverbial coordination disappears, as the only the action events are considered. Hence, my idea is not that radical, simply an extension of the ideal that functional grammar should derive its categories from observable language use.

¹⁴ The text on the voyager probes are language events in a vacuum. They *do* exist.

¹⁵ As mentioned before, only limited use of language is possible when completely and continually decontextualized.

7.2.3.3.4 THE TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION: COHESION & COHERENCE

Cohesion is discussed in the preceding subsection and describes how clauses interrelate. Coherence, on the other hand, is in the mind of the recipient of the language event – how *well* it is understood.¹⁶ These two apply at all levels of language use,.

Providing the grammatical linkage between clauses we find two quantities: **taxis** and **logico-semantic** relation. Taxis is the relative rank of interrelated clauses and is explained in 0. Therefore, I will move right on to logico-semantics, which is divided into the two main functions of **projection** and **expansion**. Both kinds of logico-semantic relation can be found between any pair of embedded, dependent, and main and independent clauses.

Projection is typically used in mental and verbal processes: thoughts, reported speech, and quotes. The example used in 7.2.3.2.3, taken from Thompson 2004, is that a projected clause is like a picture and the projecting clause its frame. Although information in projected clauses is part of a language event, it operates in a private context. Concordantly, grammatical rules and interrelation may apply between projected clauses, but projected clauses are not affected by the grammar of their projecting clauses. By contrast, expansion is at play whenever a clause adds meaning to the information given by the preceding clause. Expansion comprises **elaboration**, **extension**, and **enhancement**.

Elaboration is another aptly named SFL function, and describes the situation wherein a clause does not provide new information to a language event, but gives more information about what has already been mentioned. This may mean adding specificity, giving a general framing, or simply rephrasing what has gone before.

/// Tony's a <i>made man</i> ; // he works for the mob. ///	Elaborating parataxis
/// Janine was a French teacher, / which meant she was hard put upon ///	Elaborating hypotaxis

FIGURE 11: ELABORATION

Extension, though it sounds similar to elaboration, refers to the addition of new information or the replacement of old information.

¹⁶ Technically, it might be possible to produce language that is cohesive but not coherent. While that is probably not very likely, I am sure most language users have experienced perceiving someone else's language as incomprehensible – incoherent in these terms – especially in the presence of age gaps or dialects. The same language is being spoken, just not in the same way.

/// Tony's a made man, // and his boss is Don Cheedle. ///	Extending parataxis, additive
/// Janine was a French teacher, / though she didn't look it. ///	Extending hypotaxis, replacing

FIGURE 12: EXTENSION

Finally, enhancing relations are those where information is added that provides a circumstantial or adverbial circumstance.

/// Tony's a made man // and he works in New Jersey. ///	Enhancing parataxis, additive
/// Janine was a French teacher, / at the British School in Paris. ///	Enhancing hypotaxis, replacing

FIGURE 13: ENHANCEMENT

7.2.3.3.5 THE TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION: THEME AND RHEME

How information is presented affects how it is perceived. While this is obvious at the level of the clause nexus (if you wax loquacious about the difficulty of a task before reply whether you will undertake it, chances are you are building up to a 'no' or looking for compensation), it is equally true at the level of individual clauses. This can be made readily apparent by the juxtapositions in Table 6.

Version 1 – unmarked	Version 2 – marked
'I'd love to go, though I'll have to check with the wife first.'	'I'd love to go, though first I'll have to check with the wife.'
'She's working from home today.'	'Today, she's working from home.'

TABLE 6: MARKED AND UNMARKED ORDERING

In the first **unmarked** sentence, we see an affirmative reply to some invitation, with the caveat that spousal approval is needed. The **marked** version makes the concessive aspect stronger (at least to my mind), the approval more important. The second sentence is about where a woman is. The marked version, though, expresses the idea that working from home is somehow unusual, a rare occurrence or strong contrast to other possibilities. Granting that

different language users may have varying perceptions of various orderings, the prominence of information is strongly tied to the order in which it is presented.

Theme is the first part of most sentences, and may be present in both complex clauses and simple ones. It provides a 'point of departure' for the rest of the sentence, though not all sentences have Theme. I have previously argued the Theme is tied to the Japanese *-wa* particle, a position I will reiterate in **Error! Reference source not found.**

Theme can be broadly defined as everything up to and including the first existential constituent of a sentence. Experiential elements are processes, participants related to those processes, or circumstances to those processes. Conversely, Conjunctive Adjuncts and comment Adjuncts are not experiential elements, but by the above definition, they are included in the Theme if they precede the experiential element that bounds it.

Marsupials are great.

Surely, koalas are the most popular.

Unfortunately, though, getting to Australia is difficult.

Even by plane, it can take as long as fourteen hours, non-stop.

FIGURE 14: EXAMPLES OF THEME

As we can see from Figure 14, the simplest form of Theme is a single, nominal subject. The comment Adjunct in the next sentence also becomes part of the Theme. Both a comment Adjunct and a conjunctive adverbial join the infinite phrase to create a heavy Theme in the third sentence. Finally, in the fourth sentence, the Theme is not even the subject of the sentence, but a circumstantial Adjunct, the concessive adverbial group 'even by plane'. Depending on one's approach, a complex sentence may have an entire dependent clause as its Theme. One example of this is 'it-cleft' sentences, where the 'it BE' does not add information but signals focus or prominence. Another is interpolation, where an embedded clause is inserted directly after the subject (and forms part of the Theme).

Above, I show examples of **marked** and **unmarked** sentence structure. If we assume that there is a normal, unsurprising way of presenting information in a sentence, we can call that the unmarked form. Any variation on the sentence structure that then draws attention to a specific part of the sentence is then called marked. Elements of a sentence can be moved to the initial position in a sentence through fronting, raising, and extrapositioning. The added prominence may not necessary make the moved element the most important part of the

sentence, but helps frame the information in the sentence. The ordering of a sentence and the prominence it signals is called **information structure**.

The purpose of the Theme, and the reason analysing language in this way has any value, is the flow of information it represents. Theme and Rheme are tied to the givenness or newness of elements in the language event. In English and Norwegian, new information at the start of a sentence is often jarring, and so language users often start out with known quantities. The default Theme, the simple subject, is often realised as a pronoun, referencing an entity already brought up. Thus, 'Rudolf robbed a bank' seems more jarring than 'You know Rudolf? He robbed a bank.' In any language event, the speaker and any interlocutor are always active entities. Therefore, the 1st and 2nd person personal pronouns are always available to introduce other entities, which explains the prevalence of conversational gambits like 'did you know...' and 'so, I heard that ...' Below, in is an example of a conversation analysed by Theme.

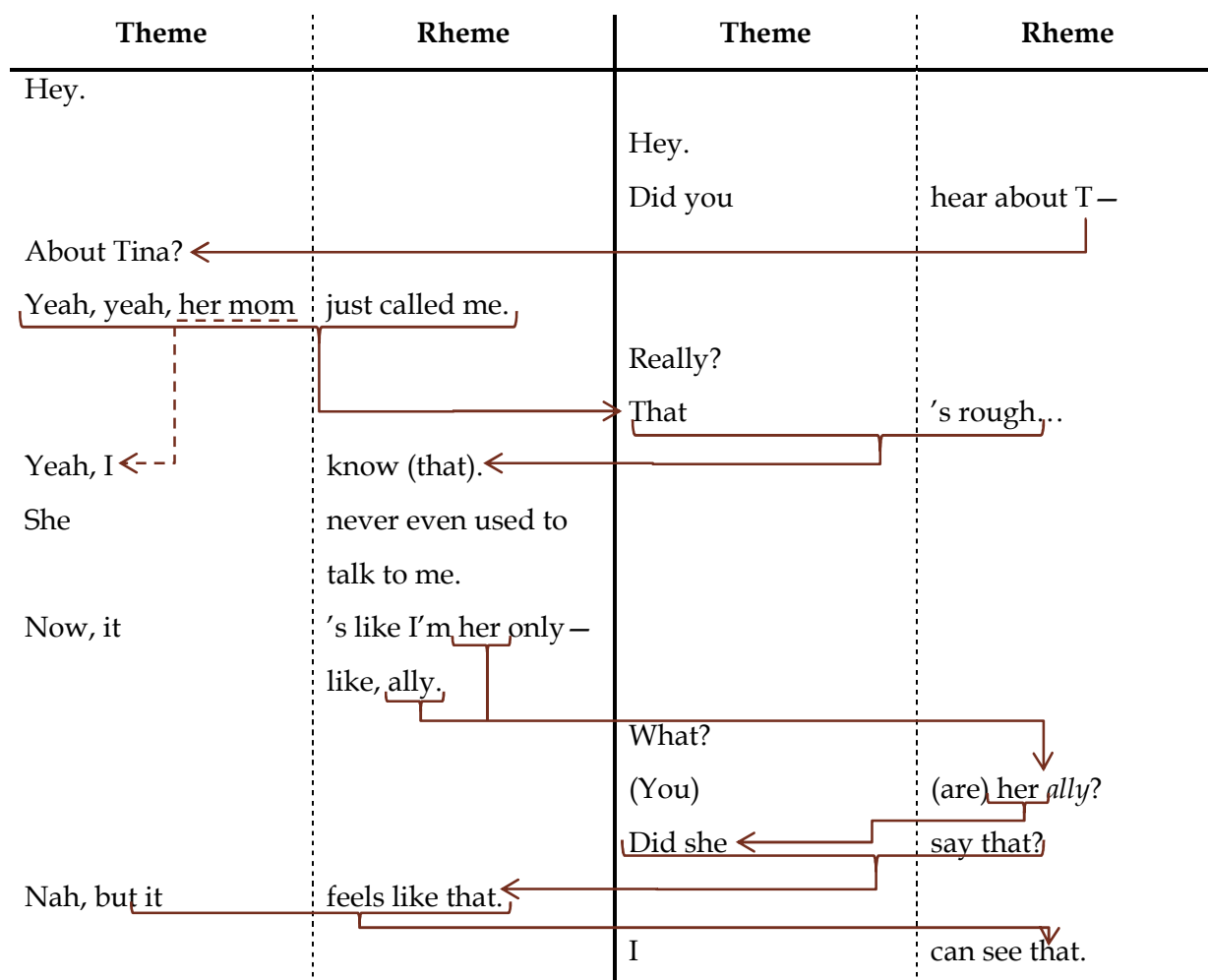


FIGURE 15: THEME IN A CONVERSATION

One thing we can see from Figure 15 is that there is motion from both Theme to Rheme and Rheme to Theme. While the motions above are too chaotic to make any truly telling analyses, we can see that the experiential Themes are: 'Did you', 'About Tina', 'her mom', 'That', 'I', 'She', 'it', 'You', 'Did she', 'it', 'I'. Even if we didn't know anything else about the conversation, it is possible to see that this is a very person-oriented exchange: participants are almost all pronominal, indicating that information being related is about participants already mentioned. This is supported by the fact that 'Tina' and 'mom' appear as early Themes, after which they are not mentioned.

Some sentences, like exclamations and greetings, are not analysed for Theme and Rheme, as there is little to be gained. Elliptical sentences (like 'Her *ally?*') may be analysed for Theme and Rheme, as there are assumed to be elements present that are simply not phonetically realised. That is one of the assertions I make regarding the use of SFL in Japanese, which is the topic of the next section. And, indeed, this is where I feel SFL has much to offer as tool for analysing Japanese: in determining the given/new evaluations and how that decides information structure in the sentence.

7.3 JAPANESE GRAMMAR

7.3.1 NESTING OF EMBEDDED CLAUSES IN JAPANESE

Consider the sentence. Regardless of the framework being used, I don't think anyone will argue against this sentence being about *kare* 'he'. Whether it is about him in to the extent that he is the backdrop against which the hair's being long takes place, or it is he who is possessed of the quality of 'hair-being-long-ness', he is an important part of the sentence.

<i>kare-wa</i>	<i>kami-ga</i>	<i>naga.i</i>
he- <i>wa</i>	hair- <i>ga</i>	long.npst
'he has long hair' or 'his hair is long'		

TABLE 7: A SIMPLE ATTRIBUTIVE SENTENCE

If we remove *kare-wa* from the sentence, we are left with a proposition 'hair is long'. The proposition isn't ungrammatical by itself, but begs the question '*whose?*' Although it is conceivable that one might be talking about the general category '(all) hair', because hair is such a specific thing, and quite generally attached to people or things, proposing that all hair is long seems strange. Indeed, if one *were* to make the statement '(all) hair is long', one would be at considerable risk of being wrong.¹⁷ More importantly, however, such a statement is difficult for any interlocutor to verify. A reasonable way of approaching such a statement is to provide some scope for it, some place where it may be measured to be true or false. Scoping is done either implicitly, by pragmatic convention, or explicitly, by specifying the hair in question, eg. through 'he has' or 'his' (or 'that' or 'the') in English.

On the basis of this logic, I would argue that the same applies to all languages, including Japanese. Of course, this may vary with social understanding, but I am assuming that most – if not all – cultures have a concept of specificity. Hair is not the crux of this argument, but the nature of propositions is. I contend that non-universal propositions require scope to be of any value. The nature and style of the scoping likely varies by language and scenario, but one or more mechanisms are likely to exist.

I have provided a breakdown of variations on this sentence in tables 8-13. The variation in

¹⁷ This is also partially due to the nature of the proposition. If the statement were 'hair is a fibrous biomaterial composed largely of protein', a universal scope would be easier to assume.

Table 9 shows what many have termed the ‘explanatory’ sentence type, ie. that the use of the nominaliser *-no* makes this a marked construction.

As the tables show, embedded clauses form their own propositional values and can nest (Table 13), with each embedded level capable of being a self-contained proposition that can be attached to an element higher in the sentence. Teruya writes that the nominaliser *-no* has no semantic value, and that its only function is to bring embedded clause into the main clause. Whether this is right, or nominalisers like *no* in Japanese, *det* in Norwegian or *that* in English do carry some vague semantic value along the lines of ‘the fact that’ is not something I will examine.

Another facet of this that is interesting, is that although Teruya does not assign semantic value to *-no*, he does so to other nominalisers, such as *hazu*, *mitai*, *tame*, *sei*, *soo*, *tame*, and *yoo*. In addition, he assigns them modal value (Teruya, 2007, p. 210). *Soo* and *yoo* do not receive any special treatment, despite being auxiliaries and not nouns. On the other hand, special mention is given to the constructions surrounding head-nouns indicating deontic modality, like *~hitsuyoo-ga aru* ‘~ necessity exists’ and *~-wa toozen da* ‘~ is natural’ (p. 211). This is all described under the title of embedding, which, along with **downranking**, are the ways to relate clauses though **hypotaxis**. Hypotaxis and parataxis are, as mentioned before, the SFL terms for subordination and coordination of clauses.

Teruya gives the normal unmarked ordering of hypotactically related clauses as $\beta^{\wedge}\alpha$, where β is the dependent clause and α the independent/dominant clause. Independent clauses are also called main clauses, not to be confused with major clauses, these always include a Predicate.¹⁸ This is a huge area, and Teruya, quite reasonably, devotes over 100 pages to types of interdependency.

Naturally, sentence prosody may also be used to indicate Mood. In particular, sentences that do not have an over question Negotiator (*-ka/-kke*) but are nevertheless interrogative often have a rising tone toward the end of the utterance (Teruya: 19, 151, Uemura 1989).

¹⁸ Except for relational sentence types, which don’t have a predicate, unless you count the copula as both Finite and Predicate. I think this is fine, and that ‘being’ is a process, but both Thompson and Teruya seem less than chuffed at the idea.

<i>kare-wa</i>	<i>kami-ga</i>	<i>naga.i</i>
he- <i>wa</i>	hair- <i>ga</i>	long.npst

TABLE 8: A SIMPLE ATTRIBUTE SENTENCE

<i>kare-wa</i>	<i>kami-ga</i>	<i>naga.i</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>da</i>
he-Th	hair-subj	long.npst	nmz	cop.npst
subject	complement			finite

TABLE 9: AN 'EXPLANATORY' ATTRIBUTIVE SENTENCE WITH *NAGAI*

<i>kami-ga</i>	<i>naga.i</i>
hair-subj	long.npst
subject	pred.fin
Rheme	

TABLE 10: THEMELESS CLAUSE – DECONTEXTUALISED INFORMATION

? <i>kare-wa</i>	<i>hansamu</i>	<i>da</i>
he-Th	handsome	cop.npst
subject	complement	finite
Theme	Rheme	

TABLE 11: A QUESTIONABLE ATTRIBUTIVE SENTENCE

<i>kare-wa</i>	<i>hansamu-na</i>	<i>otoko</i>	<i>da</i>
he-Th	handsome-cop.adn	man	cop.npst
	complement-finite	subject	
subject	complement		finite
Theme	Rheme		

TABLE 12: AN ATTRIBUTE SENTENCE WITH *HANSAMU*

<i>kare-wa</i>	<i>hansamu-na</i>	<i>otoko-na</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>da</i>
he-Th	handsome-cop.adn	man-cop.adn	nmz	cop.npst
	cmpl-fin	subj		
	complement-finite		subj	
subject	complement			finite
Theme	Rheme			

TABLE 13: AN 'EXPLANATORY' ATTRIBUTE SENTENCE WITH *HANSAMU*

Teruya groups anything modifying a final *-n(o)* with any following copula, such as *da* or *deshita*, and terms the group explanatory. He argues that unlike English, where the Subject and Finite together (along with any Mood Adjuncts) give a clear indication of the sentence Mood (declarative, interrogative), Japanese does not have such a clear Finite construction, and that it is subsumed under an expanded Predicate. His Predicate then works in tandem with Mood Adjuncts and sentence-final particles, which he terms 'Negotiators', to determine sentence Mood.

The idea that Negotiators help inform Mood seems reasonable, and I think this might be a good term for Mood Adjuncts in general. Similar sentence-final elements can be seen in other languages: in Norwegian, one might follow a statement with *garantert* 'guaranteed' to indicate high epistemic modality, or a tag question to indicate low epistemic modality. These appear to correspond quite well to the Negotiators *-yo* and *-ne*, respectively.

Returning to the above, however, I cannot bring myself to agree with the Teruya's disregard of the Finite. In the following, I will examine the functional linguistic definitions of Predicate and Finite, and show how I have arrived at a different conclusion than Teruya.

According to Thompson, the Finite is drawn from a small number of verbs, which can be divided into two groups: those expressing **tense** and those expressing **modality** (Thompson, 2004, p. 51). While he suggests that an easy way to identify Subject and Finite is to add a tag question, this approach obviously doesn't work in Japanese, where questioning Negotiators fulfil that function. So, we look at what functions the Finite has. Thompson says that '[i]f the Subject is the entity on which the validity of statement rests ... Finite makes it possible to argue about the validity of the proposition' (p. 53). To that end, the Finite makes three kinds of claim about the proposition assigned to the Subject. These are: tense, polarity, and modality (ibid.). That information is precisely what is expressed by the copula or inflected verb. Table 14 compares the various forms of the copula in modern Japanese (Frellesvig, 2010, p. 395) with the aforementioned claim types.

It seems that the Finite functions are well covered by the copula. Furthermore, adjectival copula – so called '*i*-adjectives' – have all the same forms, save the attributive, which is covered by the past and nonpast forms. This would seem to indicate that the Finite does, in fact, have an existence in Japanese.

	Plain	Polite	Finite function
Nonpast	<i>da</i>	<i>desu</i>	tense
Attributive	<i>na ~ no</i>		
Past	<i>datta</i>	<i>deshita</i>	tense
Conjectural	<i>daroo</i>	<i>deshoo</i>	modality
(Past conjectural)	<i>dattaroo</i>	–	tense/modality
Infinitive	<i>ni ~ to</i>		tense
Gerund	<i>de</i>		
Conditional	<i>dewa</i>		modality
Provisional	<i>nara(ba)</i>		modality
Concessive	<i>demo</i>		modality
Negative	<i>dewa na-</i>		polarity

TABLE 14: MODERN JAPANESE COPULA VS. FUNCTIONS OF THE FINITE
(REPRODUCTION OF FRELLESVIG 2010)

While it may seem arbitrary to divide a conjugated verb in the middle, this is really no stranger than the ‘fused’ Finite and Predicator found when applying SFL to other languages. The fact that auxiliaries have a designated order, and that auxiliaries that provide functions ascribed to the Finite always follow those ascribed to the Predicator (if present) appears to support this argument.

For example, we know that voice in Japanese is expressed through the passive auxiliary *-(r)are-* (Tsuji-mura: 273ff). According to SFL, voice is indicated by the Predicator, which means it must be close to the verb stem. If we use a negative conjugation, that is polarity which is modal and part of the Mood. The passive marker cannot move past the negative marker to join the Finite: **tabenarareru* ‘*been not eaten’. This applies to all the aspects that SFL says the Predicator expresses: starting, completing, continuing, etc. They must be followed by a nonpast ending, which may be the Finite. Alternatively, they may be take slightly longer endings, like the hearsay Adjunct *soo*, which requires the copula as Finite.

This is merely an elaboration on the already extant topic-comment framework favoured by most linguistics when viewing Japanese (Frellesvig, 2010, p. 250) (Miyagawa & Saito, 2008). The change to Theme-Rheme from topic-comment merely serves to give some solid guidelines to a concept that is still argued. I should perhaps point out that in my understanding of the interpersonal metafunction Teruya’s Negotiators are, in fact, a special

type of Adjunct. Being that they fulfill all the roles listed in 7.2.3.1.2, this interpretation at least seems plausible.

7.3.2 A FEW EXAMPLE ANALYSES

ホルテマンがコンラー・**セーヘル**の要望を却下するなど、およそ考えられないことだが、

<i>Seeheru</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>yooboo</i>	<i>o</i>
N	GEN	N	D.O
CMPL			

二十年前にエーリセとここへ越してきた**のは**、間取りが**いい**のと、この眺望があった**から**だった。

<i>no-wa</i>	<i>madori-ga</i>	<i>ii</i>	<i>-no</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>da.tta</i>
NMZ-TH	N-SUBJ	ACOP	NMZ	P?	COP.PST
SUBJ	SUBJ	CMPL.FIN			FIN
	AJNT?				

<i>no-wa</i>	<i>madori-ga</i>	<i>ii</i>	<i>-no-to</i>	<i>kono chooboo-ga</i>	<i>a.tta</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>da.tta</i>
NMZ-TH	N-SUBJ	ACOP	NMZ-CJNT	NML.GP-SUBJ	V.PST	SJNT	COP.PST
SUBJ	SUBJ	CMPL.FIN		SUBJ	PRED.FIN		FIN
	AJNT						

This is a striking example of a mistake incurred through over-zealous trimming. Identifying subject and finite was not a problem, but the central portion puzzled me. I had never encountered the construction *-no kara* before. Indeed, consulting a particle dictionary, the only explanation could find was that it would be interpreted as a prepositional use. In other words, it would read ‘from the plan being good’ rather than the ‘because the plan was good’ reading that I assume is intended.

As another possibility, it could be that the primary meaning of *kara* is something akin to the Latin ablative, and so expresses both motion away from and cause, or even that there is no difference between the two meanings in Japanese.¹⁹ Yet, I find the idea that such a concept would not yet be widely known to be wholly unlikely. Therefore, I looked for a mistake in my analysis. I believe my mistake was due to the idiomatic/colloquial use of language in the sentence. It is, after all, reported speech.

¹⁹ This is, of course, disregarding all the other myriad functions that the classical Latin ablative case performs. In fact, particle *-de* could also be candidate, as it demonstrates both locative and adverbial meanings, including cause, manner, and means.

Either of the two embedded clauses in the sentence are capable of standing on their own: *marodi-ga ii* ‘(the house) plan is good’ and *kono chooboo-ga atta* ‘there is this view’. Either clause would work with *kara* on its own, since they both have nonpast form. However, they are not combined into one clause before being inserted into the main clause. They are both taken in as-is, and so must follow different rules. Normally, in my limited experience, when extending a clause that currently ends with adjectival copula (*i*-adjective), the gerund form is used. In this case, that would mean that *ii* would change to *yo.kute*. In this case, that is not what has happened. Instead, the first clause has been nominalised and joined with the second clause through the conjunctive particle *-to*. That is why the first analysis doesn’t work, because it assumes that the *-no* is part of the first clause, rather than necessitated by the second clause. Reanalysing confirms this. As to why this was done, my only guess would be that the translator did not want the interrelation of meaning that sometimes with the gerund form.

<i>no-wa</i>	<i>madori-ga</i>	<i>ii</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>da.tta</i>
nmz-Th	N-subj	acop	sjnt	cop.pst
subj	subj	cmpl.fin		fin
	ajnt			

「この人たちぜんぶに話を聞きにいくんですか？」母親が訊いた。

<i>haha-ga</i>	<i>kii.ta</i>
N-subj	V.pst
subj	pred.fin

だとすると、ハンドボールをやめたのは、宿題のせいではなかったのかもしれないですね？」

<i>da-to-suru-to</i>	<i>handobooru-o</i>	<i>yame.ta</i>	<i>no-wa</i>	<i>shukudai-</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>sei</i>	<i>de-wa na.katta</i>
cop-P-V-sjnt	N-d.o	V.pst	nmz-Th	NML.GP			cop.neg.pst
ajnt	subj	pred.fin		cmpl			fin
	subj						

実際のところは、山頂で草を食んでいる羊からきているのだった。

<i>jissai</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>tokoro-wa</i>	<i>sanchoo-de</i>	<i>kusa-o</i>	<i>hande-iru</i>	<i>hitsuji</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>kite-iru</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>da.tta</i>	
NML.GP-Th			N-loc	N-d.o	V.ger-V	N	P	V.ger-V	nmz	cop.pst	
ajnt			ajnt	cmpl	pred-fin	subj					
			ajnt						pred-fin	subj	fin
			cmpl								

セーヘルは、娘のイングリッドが何かの用事でかけてきたんだろうと思いながら電話器を受けとった。

<i>inguriddo-ga</i>	<i>nani-ka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>yooji</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>kakete-ki.ta</i>	<i>-n</i>	<i>da.roo</i>
N-subj	NML.GP-caus				V.ger-V.pst	nmz	cop.conj
subj	ajnt				pred-fin	fin	
	cmpl						

<i>inguriddo-ga</i>	<i>nani-ka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>yooji</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>kakete-ki.ta</i>	<i>-n</i>	<i>da.roo</i>
N-subj	NML.GP-caus				V.ger-V.pst	nmz	cop.conj
subj	ajnt				pred	fin	

<i>inguriddo-ga</i>	<i>nani-ka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>yooji</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>kakete-ki.ta</i>	<i>-n</i>	<i>da.roo</i>
N-subj	NML.GP-caus				V.ger-V.pst	nmz	cop.conj
subj	ajnt				cmpl	fin	

最大の問題は、物事を学ぶのにほかの人より時間がかかるってことだと思います。

<i>saidai</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>mondai-wa</i>	<i>tte</i>	<i>koto</i>	<i>da</i>
NML.GP-subj			quot	nmz	cop
subj			cmpl		fin

Here, *-tte koto* is the short form of *to iu koto*, which is an extended nominaliser. In other cases I have not included the verb of the modifying clause. However, here it is not immediately clear that it is, in fact, stepping in for the verb. I thought this was worth noting as *-tte* can also mean simply *to*, or even *to wa*. I have heard it suggested that it may even stand for *to iu no wa*, though I do not think I have seen any cases of this.

今年もそろそろその時期だった。

<i>sorosoro</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>jiki</i>	<i>da.tta</i>
adv	gen	N	cop.pst
cmpl			fin

もうお休みの時間だから

<i>o-yasumi</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>jikan</i>	<i>da</i>
N	gen	N	cop
cmpl			fin

While it might seem like some of these analyses are hamstrung by the fact that I do not always include the entire sentence, I have looked at the Norwegian original when selecting

parts to translate. In addition, much of what is trimmed is, in fact, projecting material. I will reiterate what was said about the relationship between projecting and projected, namely that the grammar of the projecting clause does not affect the grammar of the projected clause. Having said that, there are several places where I have trimmed parts of a sentence that are not salient to an analysis of *det er* to the extent that I can see.

Above I have shown a few examples that surprised me. More than once, I have found an initial analysis confusing, simply because I had disregarded competition between two construction types in the sentence.

Below is are examples of pronominal flow in the Norwegian and Japanese versions of the text. It is plain to see that the Japanese version is dropping what in the Norwegian text remains explicitly focussed during the entire exchange. However, I believe that it is critical to note that just because the elements in brackets are not present in the text and hence, the represented dialogue exchange, this does not mean that they aren't there in the mind of the speakers or the reader. In fact, simply inserting another Theme (*-wa element*) immediately alters (and in some cases, entirely breaks) the statement meanings.

– Hun er splitter naken, repliserte han.	1	「女は全裸だぞ」と、セーヘル。
– Ja, men det har hun visst ordnet sjøl.	2	「ええ。ですが、(女は)自分で脱いだんじゃないでしょうか。」
De klærne der er ikke flådd av med makt,	3	あの衣服はむりやり脱がせたものではありません。
det er i hvert fall sikkert.	4	
– De er sølete.	5	「でも、(あの衣服は)汚れているぞ」
– Kanskje det er derfor hun har tatt dem av, smilte han.	6	「だから (あの衣服は) (女が) 脱いだんですよ、たぶん」鑑識員はほほ笑んだ。
– Dessuten har hun kastet opp.	7	「それに、彼女は吐いています。」

FIGURE 16: EXAMPLES OF PRONOMINAL FLOW

8 RESULTS

8.1 SIDE-BY-SIDE COMPARISON

Here are a few juxtaposed samples from the text.

8.1.1 LINE 2

「だから脱いだんですよ、たぶん」鑑識員はほほ笑んだ。

<i>dakara</i>	<i>nuida</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
therefore	took-off	NMZ	COP.POL	EMPH
AJNT	CMPL		FIN	NEG

– Kanskje det er derfor hun har tatt dem av, smilte han.

det	er	derfor	hun	har	tatt	dem	av
SUBJ	FIN	CMPL					SUBJ

Though it may be due to how I have assigned categories, it is nevertheless obvious that ‘therefore’ *dakara* / *derfor* works as an Adjunct in the Japanese and a Complement in the Norwegian. This is due to the focussing nature of the sentence structure. Now, while it may be said that the initial placement of *dakara* provides extra prominence in the same way that the *det er* focussing does in Norwegian, this requires repeated correlation to be ascertained. Conversely, it may be attributed to differing writing styles between the Norwegian author and the Japanese translator, but again, this is hard to determine without positive correlation.

8.1.2 LINE 3

二十年前にエーリセとここへ越してきたのは、間取りがいいのと、この眺望があったからだった。

<i>no</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>madori</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>ii</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>datta</i>
NMZ	TH	plan	NOM	good	because	COP.PST
SUBJ			AJNT			FIN

Når han likevel hadde flyttet inn for tjue år siden med kona Elise, var det fordi leiligheten hadde en ypperlig planløsning og en svimlende utsikt.

var	det	fordi	leiligheten	hadde	en	ypperlig	planløsning
was	it	because	the.flat	had	a	superb	floorplan
FIN	SUBJ						CMPL

Here again, we see what is labelled an Adjunct in the Japanese represented by a Complement in the original Norwegian.

8.1.3 LINE 4

子どもって、そんなふうじゃないですか。何かをやってみては、あきらめる。

<i>kodomo</i>	<i>tte</i>	<i>sonna</i>	<i>fuu</i>	<i>ja</i>	<i>nai</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>ka</i>
children	things-like	that-kind	way	COP.NEG	COP.POL		Q
SUBJ		CMPL		FIN		NEG	

Det er jo sånn unger er, de prøver seg på ting og så slutter de.

det	er	jo	sånn	unger	er
it	is	after-all	that-way	kids	are
SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL	SUBJ	

Once again, we see that Complement and Adjunct switch places between the languages, lending credence to the idea of some form of pattern. The modality expressed by the Adjunct in Norwegian does not seem to be directly displayed in the Japanese, but if we recall that I posited Negotiators as a specific types, we see that there is congruence.

8.1.4 21

「そんな！遠すぎるよ」ラゲンヒルが泣き声を出した。

<i>sonna</i>	<i>toosugiru</i>	<i>yo</i>
INTJ	be-far.exceed	EMPH
AJNT	PRED.FIN	NEG

– Det er jo kjempelangt! sutret hun.

det	er	jo	kjempelangt
it	is	so	very-far
SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL

In this pair, we see some divergence. Specifically, in the appearance of a Predicator in the Japanese not present in the Norwegian. However, this is easily accounted for by the fact that ‘far’ is expressed through the adjectival copula in Japanese, and thus has the meaning not just of ‘far’ but of ‘to be far’.

あの衣服はむりやり脱がせたものではありません。

<i>mono</i>	<i>dewa</i>	<i>arimasen</i>
NMZ	COP.POL.NEG	
CMPL	FIN	

今年もそろそろその時期だった。

<i>sorosoro</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>jiki</i>	<i>da</i>
soon	GEN	time	COP
CMPL			FIN

もうお休みの時間だから」

<i>oyasumi</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>jikan</i>	<i>da</i>
hon.sleep	GEN	time	COP
CMPL			FIN

De klærne der er ikke flådd av med makt, det er i hvert fall sikkert.

det	er	i hvert fall	sikkert
it	is	at least	certain
SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL

Det var egentlig tida nå.

det	var	egentlig	tida	nå
it	was	really	time	now
SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL	AJNT

Det er kvelden.

det	er	kvelden
it	is	night-time
SUBJ	FIN	CMPL

These three pairs, which are on very simple form, show some variation. These are presentational *det* sentences, so difference from 2-4 and 21 is to be expected. The Japanese uses the more formal or stilted *dewa arimasen* for 'is not'. As politeness counts as part of the Mood, we see again the analysis apparently working.

In the middle pair, adnominal modification is used to indicate the modality. This is a divergence from the other samples, as the modality is not expressed in the Mood (Subject or Finite).

The last pair shows similar use of common phrasing. The term *oyasumi* ‘good night’ matches the Norwegian use of *kvelden*. There is a difference, in that the Japanese becomes ‘it is time to go to bed’, which is not directly stated in the Norwegian, but implied by the tone of the sentence.

8.1.6 LINE 44

岩が四個か五個あるために草が生えていないだけの、ただのぬかるんだ一角で、
水辺に近づける、おそらくは唯一の場所だった。

<i>tada</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>nukarunda</i>	<i>ikkaku</i>	<i>de</i>
merely	GEN	was-muddy	point	COP.GER
AJNT		PRED.FIN	SUBJ	FIN
CMPL				

Snarere var det en mudrete flekk med fire-fem store steiner, akkurat nok til å holde sivet unna, og kanskje det eneste stedet man kunne komme helt ned til vannet.

snarere	var	det	en	mudrete	flekk
rather	was	it	a	muddy	spot
AJNT	FIN	SUBJ	CMPL		

Line 44, another presentational *det* sentence, shows quite good congruence, but as with line 24, the Adjunct that appears in the clause in the Norwegian version, is made modifier of the Complement. There is still modality being expressed, but in both these cases, it is through modification of the noun itself, rather than through modifications to the Finite or free Adjuncts.

8.1.7 LINE 84 & 90

「危険だからね。」

<i>kiken</i>	<i>da</i>
dangerous	COP
CMPL	FIN

– Det er farlig.

<i>det</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>farlig</i>
it	is	dangerous
SUBJ	FIN	CMPL

「シーヴェンでした。」

<i>shiiven</i>	<i>deshita</i>
Siven (name)	COP.POL.PST
CMPL	FIN

– Det var Siven.

det	var	Siven
it	was	Siven (name)
SUBJ	FIN	CMPL

With these two examples, the lack of a true subject is apparent in both language versions. The sentence types is what I have called ‘vague *det*’, and is where *det* seems to be serving a deictic purpose, but the thing that is being referenced has not been made explicit yet. The same thing can be seen the Japanese. In Norwegian, *å gå der* ‘walking there’ and *som ringte* ‘who rang’ could be added to the ends of the sentences to give *det* normal cataphoric / prep-it reference. Similarly, *asoko aruku-no-wa* ‘walking there-Th’ and *denwa-wa* ‘(the) phone-Th’ could be added to the start of the Japanese sentences to give definite subjects to the copulas.

8.2 REFLECTIONS

There does indeed seem to be some correlation between the sentences patterns in the Norwegian and Japanese texts. However, without further study, it is impossible to say whether this is an artefact of my analysis, SFL itself, or some other condition.

Particularly the reversals are of great interest. This seems to suggest that there may be some underlying pattern in the language that is reversed, even beyond the ordering of verbs. No surprisingly, the nominal modification seems to be a significant difference. This merits further investigations of Mood and modality in Japanese, hopefully with SFL playing a part.

9 CONCLUSION

While I had hoped to find solid similarities or links between the Japanese and Norwegian texts, I have not managed to do so. However, I have found many congruencies between the Japanese and Norwegian formulations. Consistent reversals and similar ways of expressing ideas leads me to believe that there may indeed be more to discover in this area.

In future, I hope to be able to carry out a more extensive and balanced study, hopefully with real speakers—possibly through the methods mentioned in 6.1. With a more balanced corpus, and perhaps either a wider scope or a much narrow one, more consistent congruencies will surface. Whichever approach is chosen, hopefully the work done in this study will provide some small basis to work from.

It is my hope that by finding sufficient linguistic similarities between two languages as different as Norwegian and Japanese, that I might be able to contribute in some small way to the development of a sound Universal Parseable Grammar and increased ease of communication between two cultures that, in some ways, aren't that different.²⁰

Thank you for your patience and time in reading this.

²⁰ Let no-one say I lacked for lofty goals.

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11 APPENDICES

The categories are determined by what *det* refers to, or the type of the clause as a whole.

cFOC: cleft focussing

cPRES: cleft presentational

INF: infinite clause

REL: relative clause

IMP: impersonal construction (weather it, etc.)

PRES: presentational

VAG: vague

These categories are described in 7.1.3.

11.1 APPENDIX A: SD DET ER-SENTENCES BY CATEGORY

Boxes surrounding text indicate the analysed portion(s) of the sentence. These are deconstructed in the unshaded area beneath the quote.

1	cFOC	Det kunne ikke falle Holthemann inn å si nei, ikke når <u>det var Sejer som spurte.</u>	ホルテマンがコンラー・ <u>セーヘルの要望</u> を却下するなど、およそ考えられないことだが、
		det var N som V	N-no N
2	cFOC	– Kanskje <u>det er derfor hun har tatt dem av,</u> smilte han.	<u>「だから脱いだんですよ、たぶん」</u> 鑑識員はほほ笑んだ。
		det er ADV N VP	CJNT VP.NMZ COP.POL EMPH
3	cFOC	Når han likevel hadde flyttet inn for tjue år siden med kona Elise, <u>var det fordi leiligheten hadde en ypperlig planløsning</u> og en svimlende utsikt.	二十年前にエーリセとここへ越してきた <u>のは、間取りが いいのと、この眺望があったからだ</u> だった。
		var det SJNT S	NMZ-wa N-ga A-NMZ CJNT COP.PST
4	cFOC	<u>Det er jo sånn unger er,</u> dez prøver seg på ting og så slutter de.	<u>子どもって、そんなふうじゃないですか。</u> 何かをやってみては、あきらめる。
		det er AFF AP N V	N-QUOT NP-COP.NEG COP.POL-Q
5	cFOC	Hvis du er ute og ror, og hører at det bruser bak båten, <u>er det sjøormen som stiger opp fra dypet.</u>	舟で漕ぎ出したとき、背後でパシャッと水がはねる音がしたら、 <u>それは海底から浮上してきた海蛇だ</u> というんです。
		er det N som VP PP	PRON-wa PP VP.NP COP
6	cFOC	– <u>Da var det kanskje ikke leksene som fikk henne til å droppe håndballen</u> likevel?	<u>だとすると、ハンドボールをやめたのは、宿題のせいではなかった</u> のかもしれないですね？」
		CJNT var det NEG N som VP	COP-CJNT VP-NMZ-wa NP COP.NEG.PST
7	cFOC	– Skal dere snakke med alle på den listen? <u>Det var mora som spurte.</u>	「この人たちぜんぶに話を聞きにいくんですか？」 <u>母親が訊いた。</u>
		det var N som V	N-ga V.PST
8	CPRES	<u>I virkeligheten var det sauer som beitet på toppen.</u>	<u>実際のところは、山頂で草を食んでいる羊が</u> らきているのだった。
		ADV var det N som V PP	ADV PP PP VP-NMZ COP.PST
9	CPRES	– <u>Det er faktisk sånne unger som klarer seg best her i verden,</u> sa han fast.	「 <u>そういう子が、この世で生きていくうえでは</u> いちばんなんですよ」セーヘルはきりばりと言った。
		det ADV NP som VP PP	NP-ga PP ADVP N COP.POL EMPH

10	CPRES	Opprinnelig var det en hytte som noen hadde bygd på, først en gang, så en gang til.	かつては小さな平屋だったものに、だれかが次々に建て増やしていったのだ。
		ADV var det NP som VP	ADV-wa NP COP NMZ-dat N-ga VP NMZ COP
11	CPRES	Det var dette de stirret på.	ふたりはいま、凝然とそこを見つめていた。
		det var DEM.DET PRON VP	N-wa VP.PST.PROG
12	CPRES	Sejer var ikke religiøs, men han ba en bønn allikevel, muligens til Forsynet, om at det ikke var ferien som ble snappet vekk rett foran nesa hans.	セーヘルはべつに信心深くはないけれど、それでもどうか休暇が潰されませんようにと、祈りの言案を—たぶん神に—つぶやいた。
		det NEG var N som VP _{PSV} PP	ADV NP VP.PSV.POL.past NMZ-dat
13	CPRES	Sejer tok det, tenkte det kanskje var Ingrid som ville ham noe, han trengte jo ikke ta sorgene på forskudd.	セーヘルは、娘のイングリッドが何かの用事でかけてきたんだろうと思いながら電話器を受けとった。
		(SJNT) det QUAL var N som VP	N-ga NP-abl VP.POL.CONJ
14	CPRES	– Du. Det er noe jeg må ordne først.	「休暇より先に、片づけなくてはならない用件ができてしまいましたよ」
		det er N PRON VP ADV	ADV NP-ga VP-EMPH
15	CPRES	De måtte vente både på bildene og obduksjonsrapporten, altså var det ikke stort han kunne gjøre. Ikke før de hadde kvinnens identitet.	写真や検死解剖の報告書が上がってくるのも先のことから、女の身元がわかるまでは、いまのところ何もすることがない。
		ADV var det NEG ADV PRON VP	COP-CJNT Q-CL V-NMZ-mo V.NEG
16	CPRES	Et annet sted var det noen som ventet, som gløttet mot vinduet og i retning telefonen, og som ventet forgjeves.	どこかべつのところでは、だれかが窓と電話を交互に見やりながら、ひたすら待っているのかもしれない。まただれかは、待っていても結局は帰ってこないのかもしれない...
		ADVP var det PRON som V	PP-wa PRON-ga VP NMZ CONJ
17	CPRES	Det er faktisk samme gata hvor Ragnhild Album sov i natt, litt lenger inn i veien bare.	昨夜ラグンヒル・アルバムが泊まった家があるのと同じ通りです。
		det er ADV NP hvor S	S-N-ga V NMZ COMP NP COP
18	CPRES	– Det var ingen som holdt følge, sa faren enkelt.	「だれも、ついていけなかったんですよ」父親は言った。
		der var PRON som V	Q-mo VP.POT.NEG.PST COP.POL EMPH
19	DET	Hvis jeg har oppfattet riktig, så er det største problemet at de trenger lengre tid på å lære enn andre folk.	最大の問題は、物事を学ぶのにほかの人より時間がかかるってことだと思います。
		CJNT COP NP CJNT S	NP-wa QUOT-NMZ COP

20	DET	Badet var det eneste rommet han var misfornøyd med, men det skulle han ta seg av senere.	部屋の中で唯一気に入らない場所が浴室だが、そこもいずれ何とかするつもりだった。
		N COP NP 3p.PRON VP	CL VP.NEG.NP-ga N COP csv
21	IMP	– Det er jo kjempelangt! sutret hun.	「そんな！遠すぎるよ」ラグンヒルが泣き声を出した。
		det er AFF A	intj A.V EMPH
22	IMP	Nå var det selvfølgelig for sent.	もちろん、いまとなつては手遅れである。
		ADV var det ADV ADVP	ADV ADV-QUOT V.GER-wa N-COP
23	IMP	De klærne der er ikke flådd av med makt, det er i hvert fall sikkert.	あの衣服はむりやり脱がせたものではありません。
		det er ADV A	NMZ-COP.NEG.POL
24	IMP	Det var egentlig tida nå.	今年もそろそろその時期だった。
		det var ADV N ADV	ADV-gen N COP.PST
25	IMP	Det er kvelden.	もうお休みの時間だから
		det er N	NP COP
26	IMP	Da det ringte hos Sejer for annen gang var det nesten midnatt.	セーヘルの電話がその晩二度目に鳴ったのは、夜中の十二時になろうというころ、
		var det QUAL N	NP-ni V.CONJ QUOT V N
27	IMP	Forbannet at det var så kvistfritt der oppe.	しかし現場にこれといったものがほとんど何もなかったのが、つくづく残念だよ。
		CJNT det var AP PP	PP NP-ga ADV CL
28	IMP	– Vi ringte etter henne klokka elleve i går kveld, for da syntes vi det var mer enn seint nok.	「ゆうべ、あまりに帰りが遅いので、十一時ごろ電話してみたんです。
		det var AP	ADV N-ga A NMZ-COP.GER
29	IMP	Det er fire kilometer å gå og sykkelen hennes er i ustand, ellers bruker hun ofte sykkel.	そこまで四キロあって、ふつうは自転車を使っていますが、いま故障してるんですよ。
		det er 4-CL VP	PP CL be.GER
30	INF	Det var forbudt å riste tepper fra balkongen, derfor sendte han dem på rens hver vår.	カーペットはヴェランダでばたばた振って埃を払うのを禁じられているから、春にはクリーニングに出さなくてはならない。
		det var A VP	N-wa PP VP NMZ-D.O V.PSV.PROG

31	INF	Den hadde vært oppe på eget styremøte, men gikk greit igjennom, sannsynligvis fordi han var førstebetjent og de syntes <u>det var trygt å ha ham der</u> .	この件はマンションの自治会でも取り上げられ、問題となっていたのだが、なぜかうやむやのままに終わっていた。たぶんそれ、セーヘルが警察の捜査官、 <u>そういう人が自分たちのマンションにいるのは心強い</u> と住人たちが感じたからだろう。
		det var A VP	NP-SUBJ VP NMZ-wa A
32	INF	– <u>Det er vondt å måtte plage dere</u> , men tiden er verdifull for oss.	「こんなときに <u>申しわけないとは思うのです</u> が、でも、時間が肝要なんですよ。
		det er A VP	exp [NP V.NEG] QUOT-wa V NMZ COP.POL
33	INF	– Jeg tror hun syntes <u>det var kjedelig å stå i mål</u> , sa mora.	「たぶん、 <u>ネットの前に立っているのはもうんざりだ</u> と思ったんですよ」母親が言った。
		det var A VP	VP NMZ-wa ADV A COP
34	PRES	<u>På den andre siden var det fortau</u> , og mora hadde sagt hun skulle alltid gå på fortauet.	<u>向こう側には歩道がついていて</u> 、お母さんにいつも、歩道を歩くように言われているのだ。
		PP var det N	PP N-ga V.PROG.GER
35	PRES	– <u>Det er plass til vogna bak</u> .	「 <u>後ろに、乳母車を乗せるスペースもあるし</u> 」
		det er NP PP	PP VP-N-mo be CJNT
36	PRES	– <u>Det er ikke mange stedene</u> , mumlet hun.	「 <u>そんなにはないんです</u> 」つぶやくように彼女は言った。
		det er NEG NP	ADV-wa be.NEG NMZ COP.POL
37	PRES	– Jeg skulle tro, sa Sejer,– at på den tida kjører de fleste innover mot byen, og at <u>det kanskje er lite trafikk den motsatte veien</u> ?	「その時間なら、市中へ向かっている人がほとんどのはずだから、 <u>反対車線を走っている車はあまりなかった</u> と思うのですが、どうでしょう」
		det QUAL er NP PP	VP-N-wa ADV be.NEG.PST
38	PRES	Fra den brede nesa og ned til underleppa, som stakk litt ut, <u>var det kort avstand</u> .	足も小さく、幅の広い鼻は、ちょっと突き出した下唇に <u>もうすこしでくっつきそう</u> だ。
		var det A N	ADV VP.NMZ COP
39	PRES	<u>Men det var snodig og</u> .	<u>といっても、へんてこりんなことは、へんてこりんだ。</u>
		CJNT det var A ADV	CJNT, NP-wa A COP
40	PRES	– <u>Er det noen spesiell grunn</u> til at de går til kirken?	「 <u>教会へ行くのは、何かとくべつな理由があつてのことですか</u> ？」
		er det NP	NP-ga be.GER-gen NMZ COP.POL Q

41	PRES	Det var som om lyden trengte seg vei gjennom den tette skogen og skapte en svak bevegelse i Ragnhilds hode.	それはまるでその声が、うっそうとした森を突き破ってラグンヒルの心に小さな揺さぶりをかけたか のようだった 。
		det var som	PRON-wa ADV gen-NMZ COP.PST
42	PRES	Og så er det noe med hendene.	それから、手もちっと変わっています」
		CJNT er det NP	ADV N-mo ADV V.PROG.POL
43	PRES	– Hva er det for noe?	「どんな話なんです?」
		Q er det	Q-CL NP COP.POL Q
44	PRES	Snarere var det en mudrete flekk med fire-fem store steiner, akkurat nok til å holde sivet unna, og kanskje det eneste stedet man kunne komme helt ned til vannet.	岩が四個か五個あるために草が生えていないだけの、 ただのぬかるんだ一角で 、水辺に近づける、おそらくは唯一の場所だった。
		COMP var det NP	A V.PST N COP.GER
45	PRES	Merket seg den feilfrie huden, de svake røde flekkene, det var flere av dem , liksom tilfeldig spredt utover halsen og brystet.	傷ひとつない肌に、 薄赤の斑点が 首から胸にかけて 数個 —見たところでたために— 飛び 歌っている のが 目に留まる。
		det var PRONP	NP-ga CL VP.PROG
46	DET	– Hva er det der for noe? Sejer nikket mot munnen hennes.	セーヘルが彼女の口元へあごをしゃくる。 「 何なんだ、それ 」
		Q er det	Q COP.ADN NMZ COP PRON
47	PRES	– Umiddelbart vil jeg tro det er væske fra lungene , inneholdende protein.	「いま言えるのは、 肺から出た 、たんぱく質を含んだ 液体ではないか ってことだな」
		det er NP PP	PP V.PST N COP.NEG Q
48	PRES	Pelle Politibil skulle bemannes, og det var med skam å bekjenne ingen rift blant betjentene om denne viktige oppgaven.	地域を巡回してまわる広報車(ベッレ・ボリスカー)にも人員を配さなくてはならないのだが、 警官たちは必ずしも 、この重要な任務を我先に 取り合っているわけではない 。
		CJNT det var ADVP NEG NP	NP-wa ADV NP.PROG N COP.NEG
49	PRES	– Det er to måter å komme til Ormetjern på.	「〈セルパン・タルン〉へ行くには、 ふたとおりの方法があります 」タバコを吸いつけながら、スカッレは言った。
		det er NP	NP-ga be.POL
50	PRES	– Den heter Kolleveien. Jeg tror det er temmelig glissent med hus der, jeg sjekket på kartet hjemme.	「コッレ通りだ。 そうたくさんはいない 」と思う。家の地図で調べてみたんだ。
		det er QUAL A	dem.CL-wa be.NEG
51	PRES	– Vi får vel se hva slags type det er .	「 どういう勇か 、そのうちわかるさ」
		Q NP det er	Q NP Q

52	PRES	– Uansett, sa han forsiktig, – <u>er det alltid en grunn.</u>	「それでも、 <u>理由は必ずあるんですよ。</u>
		er det QUAL NP	N- <i>wa</i> ADV be.NMZ COP.POL EMPH
53	PRES	<u>Ikke alltid en grunn</u> vi kan forstå, men <u>det er en grunn.</u>	われわれに理解できるような理由だとはかぎりません <u>が</u> 」セーヘルは言った。
		det er NP	(contrast ellipsis?)
54	PRES	<u>Hva er det for slags spørsmål</u> , tenkte han i det samme, hva skulle de egentlig svare på det?	そう訊きながらセーヘルは、 <u>これはいったいどういう質問なんだ</u> と自分に問うていた。この人たちは、こんな質問にどう答えればいいのか?
		QP er det N	PRON- <i>wa</i> QP COP.ADN-NMZ COP
55	PRES	– Vet dere <u>om det var et seksuelt forhold</u> ? spurte han lett.	「 <u>肉体関係はあったかどうか</u> 」、ご存じですか?」軽い口調でセーヘルは訊いた。
		CJNT det var NP	NP- <i>wa</i> be.PST Q ADV Q
56	PRES	Men <u>var det kamp</u> så måtte hun jo stille, da kunne hun ikke bestemme selv.	でも、 <u>試合となると</u> そうは行きません。
		ADVP:{var det N}	N-QUOT V.nPST CJNT
57	PRON	<u>Det var tungt</u> , derfor snudde hun seg og dro den istedet.	けれど、 <u>ひっかかってなかなか進まないの</u> で、またくると向きを変え、引っぱっていく。
		det var A	V.GER ADV V.NEG NMZ COP.GER
58	PRON	– Noen er ute og leter, <u>er det så</u> ?	「どなたかが検索に出ているってことですが、 <u>そうなんですか?</u> 」
		er det ADV	ADV COP.ADN-NMZ COP.POL Q
59	PRON	– Ja, <u>det er riktig.</u>	「ええ、 <u>そうです。</u> 」
		det er A	ADV COP.POL
60	PRON	– <u>Hva er det for noe</u> ? Han bråbremsset og kikket i speilet.	「 <u>なんだ、いまのは</u> 」男がぐいとブレーキを踏み、バックミラ)を見み。
		Q er det	Q COP ADV-NMZ- <i>wa</i>
61	PRON	– <u>Det er bare Elise.</u>	「 <u>エーリセよ。</u> 」
		det er NP	N EMPH
62	PRON	– <u>Det er Påsan.</u>	「 <u>ポーサンだ。</u> 」
		det er N	N COP
63	PRON	<u>Det var som et stykke fløyel</u> mellom fingrene.	<u>まるで</u> ビロードの塊を手になっている <u>ようだった。</u>
		det var rel	ADV NMZ COP.POL

64	PRON	Jeg tror de synes <u>det er spennende</u> .	あの子たちにすれば、ちょっとした <u>冒険なん</u> <u>だ</u> と思います。」
		det er A	N COP.ADN NMZ COP
65	PRON	– <u>Hva var det</u> ? hvisket hun.	「 <u>何だったんです?</u> 」と、かすれた声で訊く。
		Q var det	Q COP.PST-NMZ COP.POL
66	PRON	Karlsen tenkte, at nå som <u>det var</u> <u>nyklippet</u> og kortere enn noensinne, lignet det en stålbørste.	いつもよりも <u>短くカットされたその髪</u> は、カー ルセンが思うに、まるでスチールのブラシだっ た。
		det var A	ADV VP DET N
67	PRON	– Ved Brevik, <u>var det så</u> ?	「小屋というと、ブレーヴィイクの近く <u>でしたっ</u> <u>け?</u> 」
		var det ADV	COP.POL QUOT-Q
68	PRON	<u>Det er ikke til å tro</u> .	<u>まったく信じられんよ</u> 」
		idiom: {det er NEG til VP _{inf} }	ADV V.pot.NEG.COL EMPH
69	PRON	<u>Det var for lite</u> .	<u>これはあまりに少なすぎる</u> 。
		det var ADV A	PRON-wa ADV A.V.nPST
70	PRON	Seks timer, sa han tankefullt, – <u>det er</u> <u>temmelig lenge</u> .	なんといっても六時間 だよ」感慨深げにセー ヘルは言った。「 <u>これはかなりの時間だ</u> 。」
		det er AP	PRON-wa NP COP
71	PRON	Til og med håret ser ut som <u>det er</u> <u>ordnet på</u> .	髪の毛まで、きれいに <u>整えられている</u> ように 見えるじゃないか。
		det er VP	V.PSV.PROG
72	PRON	– <u>Er det noen trøst</u> ? sa Skarre tvilende.	「 <u>それが何らかの慰めになろってことです</u> <u>か?</u> 」スカツレが訊く。
		er det NP	PRON-ga NP-ni V.conj QUOT NMZ COP.POL Q
73	PRON	– Lyst på en drapssak? <u>Det er jo</u> <u>reine julepresangen</u> .	「殺人事件にですか? ぼくからすれば、 <u>クリス</u> <u>マスプレゼントみたいなもんですよ</u> 。」
		det er ADV AP	N A COP.ADN NMZ COP.POL EMPH
74	PRON	Ett skilte seg ut, <u>det var appelsingult</u> .	ひとつだけ突出している <u>のが、オレンジ色</u> <u>だ</u> 。
		det var A	NMZ-ga A COP.COL
75	PRON	– <u>Det der er tatt i vinter</u> .	「 <u>それは去年の冬、撮った写真です</u> 」
		det dem er V PP	PRON-wa ADV V.PST N COP.POL
76	PRON	– <u>Det er en sjøorm</u> , forklarte hun stille.	「 <u>海蛇です</u> 」と、母親は静かに言う。
		det er NP	N COP.COL

77	PRON	Det er bare et sagn, en historie fra gammelt av.	古くからの言い伝えで、
		det er ADV NP	N COP.GER
78	PRON	Og det er bare begynnelsen.	そしてこれは、ほんの手始めです。
		det er bare N	PRON-wa NP COP.POL
79	REL	Det så virkelig ut som om hun hadde lagt seg til selv, og det var sant at klærne lå ordnet ved siden av, ikke slengt omkring.	実際、一見すると、自分で横たわったように見えるのだ。衣服はあたりに投げ散らすのではなく、横にきちんと積み重ねられている。
		det var A SJNT S	N-wa PP ADV VP.PSV.PROG
80	REL	– Er det greit om jeg tar en røyk?	「タバコ、よろしいですか?」
		er det A SJNT S	N A COP.POL Q
81	REL	– Er det sann at dere kjenner hverandre godt?	「ということは、ご近所のかたがたとは、互いによく知っているってことでしょうか?」
		er det ADV SJNT S	ADV ADV V.PROG QUOT NMZ COP.conj
82	REL	Det var så han lurte på om noe hadde hendt.	何かあったのではないかと彼は考えています」
		det var ADV S	Q be.PST NMZ COP.NEG Q QUOT N-waV.PROG.POL
83	VAG	Det er farens bil.	ヴァンはお父さんのなんですよ。
		det er NP	N-wa NP COP.ADN.NMZ COP.POL EMPH
84	VAG	– Det er farlig.	「危険だからね。
		det er A	A COP
85	VAG	Det var allerede klart.	一応、正式の手続きを踏んでいるだけで、
		det var ADV A	ADV VP NMZ COP.GER
86	VAG	Det var fru Album.	悪い知らせではないようにと願っていると、電話はミセス・アルバムだった。
		det var NP	N-wa NP COP.PST
87	VAG	Innvendig glemte man fort hva slags bygg det var, innvendig var leiligheten hyggelig og lun, og kledd med panel.	中にいれば、ここが高層の集合住宅であることなど、すぐに忘れてしまう。
		Q NP det var	N-ga NP COP
88	VAG	– Det er kjæresten hennes.	「それは彼女のボーイフレンドのイニシャルです。
		det er NP	PRON-wa NP COP.POL
89	VAG	– Det er greit.	「いいとも」
		det er A	A QUOT mo

90	VAG	– Det var Siven.	「シーヴェンでした。」
		det var N	N COP.POL.PST
91	VAG	Jeg trodde ikke det var sant–.	「耳を疑いましたよ……」
		det var A	N-D.O V.POL.PST
92	VAG	Det har vært litt til og fra, men det var bra nå, så vidt jeg vet.	仲良くしたり、疎遠になったりしてましたが、最近はうまくいったみたいです。わたしの知るかぎりでは」
		det var A ADV	PP- <i>wa</i> ADV V.PROG.PST
93	VAG	– Det var ikke noe sånt, sa hun bestemt.	「そのようなものではありませんでした」アーダは言った。
		det var NEG NP	NP- <i>wa</i> be.NEG.POL.PST
94	VAG	– Det var bare alderen, skjøtt mora inn.	「そういう歳なんですよ」母鵜が割ってはいった。
		det var ADV N	NP COP.ADN NMZ COP.POL EMPH
95	VAG	– Det er ikke sikkert, svarte mannen.	「そんな理由ではやめんだろう」と、夫が異を唱えた。
		det er NEG A	NP COP.GER V.NEG.COL COP.conj
96	VAG	Syntes det var uforståelig?	ちょっと…奇妙だと思ったわけですね？」
		det var A	A COP QUOT V.PST
97	VAG, VAG	Det er ikke skryt, det er bare sånn, la han til.	「自慢するわけじゃなく事実そうなんです」父親は言った。
		det er NEG N, det er ADV PRON	VP NMZ COP NEG.COL.GER NP COP.ADN.NMZ COP.POL

11.2 APPENDIX B: SD DET ER-SENTENCES WITH SFL ANALYSIS

In the following, unless other tags are given, nonpast plain forms are assumed. Hence, *da* will only receive the COP for copula, but not NPST nor PLN. Nominalizers have been tagged as such, to prevent having to fold in the entire modifying clause (in most cases).

NB! *-wa* and *-ga* have been tagged as TH (for Theme) and SUBJ (for Subject).

- 1 CFOC ホルtemanがコンラー・セーヘルの要望を却下するなど、およそ考えられないことだが、

<i>seeheru</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>yooboo</i>
Sejer	GEN	request
CMPL		

- 2 CFOC 「だから脱いだんですよ、たぶん」鑑識員はほほ笑んだ。

<i>dakara</i>	<i>nuida</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
therefore	took-off	NMZ	COP.POL	EMPH
AJNT	CMPL		FIN	NEG

- 3 CFOC 二十年前にエーリセとここへ越してきたのは、間取りが いいのと、この眺望があったからだった。

<i>no</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>madori</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>ii</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>datta</i>
NMZ	TH	plan	NOM	good	because	COP.PST
SUBJ		AJNT			FIN	

- 4 CFOC 子どもって、そんなふうじゃないですか。何かをやってみては、あきらめる。

<i>kodomo</i>	<i>tte</i>	<i>sonna</i>	<i>fuu</i>	<i>ja</i>	<i>nai</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>ka</i>
children	things-like	that-kind	way	COP.NEG	COP.POL		Q
SUBJ		PRED			FIN	NEG	

- 5 CFOC 舟で漕ぎ出したとき、背後でパシャッと水がはねる音がしたら、それは海底から浮上してきた海蛇だというんです。

<i>sore</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>kaitee</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>fujoo-shite-kita</i>	<i>umihebi</i>	<i>da</i>
that	Th	seafloor	from	surface-rose-to	seaserpent	COP
SUBJ		AJNT		PRED.FIN	SUBJ	FIN
		CMPL				

- 6 CFOC だとすると、ハンドボールをやめたのは、宿題のせいではなかったのかもしれないですね？」

<i>da-to-suru-to</i>	<i>handobooru-o</i>	<i>yame.ta</i>	<i>no-wa</i>	<i>shukudai-</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>sei</i>	<i>de-wa na.katta</i>
cop-P-V-sjnt	N-d.o	V.pst	nmz-Th	NML.GP			cop.neg.pst
AINT	SUBJ	PRED.FIN		CMPL			FIN
	SUBI						

7 CFOC 「この人たちがぜんぶに話を聞きにいくんですか？」母親が訊いた。

<i>haha</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>kiita</i>
mother	NOM	asked
SUBJ		PRED.FIN

8 CPRES 実際のところは、山頂で草を食んでいる羊からきているのだった。

<i>jissai</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>tokoro</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>sanchoo</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>kusa</i>	<i>o</i>
reality	GEN	place	TH	summit	at	grass	D.O
AJNT				Ajnt		CMPL	
				AJNT >			
				CMPL >			

<i>hande-iru</i>	<i>hitsuji</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>kite-iru</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>datta</i>
graze	sheep	from	come. PROG	NMZ	COP
Pred.Fin	Subj				
< Ajnt			Pred.Fin	SUBJ	
< CMPL					FIN

9 CPRES 「そういう子が、この世で生きていくうえではいちばんなんですよ」セーヘルはきりばりと言った。

<i>soo</i>	<i>iu</i>	<i>ko</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>kono</i>	<i>yo</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>ikite-iku</i>	<i>ue</i>
that sort of		child	NOM	this	world	in	live. cont	perspec-tive
SUBJ				Ajnt		Pred.Fin	Subj	
				AJNT >				

<i>dewa</i>	<i>ichiban</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
COP. cond	best	COP. ADN	NMZ	COP. Pol	EMPH
< AJNT	Cmpl	FIN	SUBJ	FIN	NEG
	CMPL				

10 CPRES かつては小さな平屋だったものに、だれかが次々に建て増やしていたのだ。

<i>katsute</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>chiisa</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>hiraya</i>	<i>datta</i>	<i>mono</i>	<i>ni</i>
once	TH	small	COP.ADN	bungalow	COP.PST	thing	dat
AJNT		AJNT >					

<i>dewa</i>	<i>ichiban</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
COP.COND	best	COP.ADN	NMZ	COP.POL	EMPH
< AJNT	CMPL			FIN	NEG

11 CPRES ふたりはいま、凝然とそこを見つめていた。

<i>futari</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>soko</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>mitsumete-ita</i>
pair	TH	there	D.O	stared.PROG
SUBJ		CMPL		PRED.FIN

- 12 CPRES セーヘルはべつに信心深くはないけれど、それでもどうか休暇が潰されませんようにと、祈りの言案を一たぶん神に一つぶやいた。

<i>sore</i>	<i>demo</i>	<i>douka</i>	<i>kyuuka</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>tsubusaremasen</i>	<i>yoo</i>	<i>ni</i>
that	COP.CONC	somehow	vacation	NOM	thwart.PSV.POL.NEG	that	DAT
AJNT		AJNT	SUBJ		PRED.FIN	CMPL	

- 13 CPRES セーヘルは、娘のイングリッドが何かの用事でかけてきたんだろうと思いながら電話器を受けとった。

<i>inguriddo-ga</i>		<i>nani-ka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>yooji</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>kakete-kita</i>	<i>-n</i>	<i>daroo</i>
Ingrid	NOM	something	GEN	errand	due-to	came-to.place	NMZ	COP.CONJ
SUBJ		AJNT				PRED.FIN		FIN
		CMPL						

OR

<i>inguriddo-ga</i>	<i>nani-ka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>yooji</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>kakete-kita</i>	<i>-n</i>	<i>daroo</i>
N-SUBJ	NML.GP-caus				V.ger-V.pst	nmz	cop.conj
SUBJ	AJNT				PRED	FIN	

OR

<i>inguriddo-ga</i>	<i>nani-ka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>yooji</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>kakete-kita</i>	<i>-n</i>	<i>daroo</i>
N-SUBJ	NML.GP-caus			V.ger-V.pst	nmz	cop.conj	
SUBJ	AJNT			CMPL		FIN	

- 14 CPRES 「休暇より先に、片づけなくてはならない用件ができてしまいましたよ」

<i>saki</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>katadzukenakute</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>naranai</i>	<i>yooji</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>dekite-shimaimashita</i>
ahead	DAT	clear-up.neg.CONC		cannot-be	errand	NOM	come-up.complete.PST.POL
AJNT		AJNT		PRED.FIN	SUBJ		PRED.FIN
		SUBJ					

- 15 CPRES 写真や検死解剖の報告書が上がってくるのも先のことだから、女の身元がわかるまでは、いまのところ何もすることがない。

<i>dakara</i>	<i>nani-mo</i>	<i>suru</i>	<i>koto</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>nai</i>
therefore	nothing	do	thing	NOM	isn't
AJNT		Ajnt	Pred.Fin	Subj	
SUBJ			PRED.FIN		

- 16 CPRES どこかべつのところでは、だれかが窓と電話を交互に見やりながら、ひたすら待っているのかもしれない。まただれかは、待っていても結局は帰ってこないのかもしれない...

<i>doko-ka</i>	<i>betsu</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>tokoro</i>	<i>dewa</i>	<i>dareka</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>matte-iru</i>
smwhere	different	GEN	place	COP.cond	smone	NOM	wait.PROG
AJNT				SUBJ		PRED.FIN	

17 CPRES 昨夜ラグンヒル・アルバムが泊まった家があるのと同じ通りです。

<i>sakuya</i>	<i>ragunhiru-arubumu</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>tomatta</i>	<i>ie</i>	<i>ga</i>
last-night	Ragnhild Album	NOM	stayed	house	NOM
AJNT	SUBJ		PRED.FIN	CMPL	
SUBJ					
AJNT >					

<i>aru</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>onaji</i>	<i>toori</i>	<i>desu</i>
exist	NMZ	as	same	street	COP.POL
PRED.FIN	SUBJ				
< AJNT			SUBJ		FIN

18 CPRES 「だれも、ついていけなかったんですよ」父親は言った。

<i>dare-mo</i>	<i>tsuite-ikenakatta</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
no-one	follow-able.NEG.PST	NMZ	COP.POL	EMPH
SUBJ	Pred.Fin	CMPL	FIN	NEG

19 DET 最大の問題は、物事を学ぶのにほかの人より時間がかかるってことだと思います。

<i>saidai</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>mondai</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>tte</i>	<i>koto</i>	<i>da</i>
biggest	GEN	pro	TH	QUOT	thing	COP
SUBJ			CMPL		FIN	

20 DET 部屋の中で唯一気に入らない場所が浴室だが、そこもいずれ何とかするつもりだった。

<i>yuitsu</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>iranai</i>	<i>basho</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>yokushitsu</i>	<i>da</i>	<i>ga</i>
only	favour	DAT	enter.NEG	place	NOM	bathroom	COP	but
AJNT	PRED.FIN			SUBJ				
SUBJ						CMPL	FIN	NEG

21 IMP 「そんな！遠すぎるよ」ラグンヒルが泣き声を出した。

<i>sonna</i>	<i>toosugiru</i>	<i>yo</i>
INTJ	be-far.exceed	EMPH
AJNT	PRED.FIN	NEG

22 IMP もちろん、いまとなつては手遅れである。

<i>mochiron</i>	<i>ima</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>natte</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>teokure</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>aru</i>
of-course	now	as	become.cond		too-late	COP	
AJNT	CMPL		PRED		CMPL	FIN	
	AJNT						

23 IMP あの衣服はむりやり脱がせたものではありません。

<i>mono</i>	<i>dewa</i>	<i>arimasen</i>
NMZ	COP.POL.NEG	
CMPL	FIN	

24 IMP 今年もそろそろその時期だった。

<i>sorosoro</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>jiki</i>	<i>da</i>
soon	GEN	time	COP
CMPL			FIN

25 IMP もうお休みの時間だから」

<i>oyasumi</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>jikan</i>	<i>da</i>
hon.sleep	GEN	time	COP
CMPL			FIN

26 IMP セーヘル電話がその晩二度目に鳴ったのは、夜中の十二時になろうというころ、肘掛け椅子にかけ、新聞を膝にのせて、うとうとしていたときだった。

<i>yonaka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>juuni-ji</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>naroo</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>iu</i>	<i>koro</i>	...	<i>toki</i>	<i>datta</i>		
middle-of-night	GEN	12-o'clock	DAT	become.CONJ	QUOT	call	around		time	COP. PST		
CMPL				PRED.FIN			PRED.				CMPL	FIN
CMPL						FIN	SUBJ					
CMPL												

27 IMP しかし現場にこれといったものがほとんど何もなかったのが、つくづく残念だよ。

<i>gempa</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>kore</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>itta</i>	<i>mono</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>hotondo</i>	<i>nani-mo</i>	<i>nakatta</i>
scene-of-crime	at	special >			thing	NOM	mostly	< nothing	wasn't
AJNT		CMPL	PRED.FIN	SUBJ			AJNT	CMPL	PRED.FIN
		SUBJ							

28 IMP 「ゆうべ、あまりに帰りが遅いので、十一時ごろ電話してみたんです。

<i>amari</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>kaeri</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>osoi</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>de</i>
far too		return	NOM	late	NMZ	COP.GER
AJNT	SUBJ			PRED.FIN		FIN
				SUBJ		

29 IMP そこまで四キロあって、ふつうは自転車を使うんですが、いま故障してるんですよ。

<i>soko</i>	<i>made</i>	<i>yon-kiro</i>	<i>atte</i>
there	to	four km.	exist.GER
AJNT		CMPL	PRED.FIN

30 INF カーペットはヴェランダでぱたぱた振って埃を払うのを禁じられているから、春にはクリーニングに出さなくてはならない。

<i>kaapetto</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>veranda</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>patapata</i>	<i>futte</i>
carpet	TH	verandah	on	flap-sound	shake.GER
CMPL		AJNT		AJNT	PRED
SUBJ		CMPL >			

<i>hokori</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>harau</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>kinjirarete-iru</i>
dust	D.O	drive-away	NMZ	D.O	forbid.psv.PROG
CMPL		PRED.FIN		PRED.FIN	
< CMPL					

Is this a case of the ‘double –o’ constraint? It shouldn’t be, since *futte* and *harau* each drive their own clause, but since they are both collected under *no*, are they then once again under the constraint?

31 INF この件はマンションの自治会でも取り上げられ、問題となっていたのだが、なぜかうやむやのままだに終わっていた。たぶんそれ、セーヘルが警察の捜査官、そういう人が自分たちのマンションにいるのは心強いと住人たちが感じたからだろう。

<i>soo</i>	<i>iu</i>	<i>hito</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>jibun-tachi</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>manshon</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>iru</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>kokorodzuyoi</i>
such		person	NOM	themselves	GEN	apt. bldg	in	be	NMZ	Th	reassuring
SUBJ			AJNT					P.F	PRED.FIN		
SUBJ											

32 INF 「こんなときに申しわけないと思うのですが、でも、時間が肝要なんですよ。」

<i>mooshiwake</i>	<i>nai</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>omou</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>desu</i>
excuse	isn't	QUOT	TH	feel	NMZ	COP.POL
SUBJ	P.F	CMPL		P.F		FIN
CMPL						

33 INF 「たぶん、ネットの前に立っているのはもううんざりだ」と思ったんですよ」母親が言った。

<i>netto</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>mae</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>tatte-iru</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>moo</i>	<i>unzari</i>	<i>da</i>
goal	GEN	front	in	stand.PROG	NMZ	Th	EMPH	boring	COP
AJNT				PRED.FIN					
SUBJ							AJNT	CMPL	FIN

34 PRES 向こう側には歩道がついていて、お母さんにいつも、歩道を歩くように言われているのだ。

<i>mukoo-gawa</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>hodoo</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>tsuite-ite</i>
opposite-side	on	TH	sidewalk	NOM	attach.PROG
AJNT			SUBJ		PRED.FIN

35 PRES 「後ろに、乳母車を乗せるスペースもあるし」

<i>ushiro</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>nyuubosha</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>noseru</i>	<i>speesu</i>	<i>mo</i>	<i>aru</i>	<i>shi</i>
back	in	pram	D.O	load	space	also	exists	expl
AJNT	CMPL			PRED.FIN	SUBJ			
	SUBJ						PRED.FIN	NEG

36 PRES 「そんなにはないんです」つぶやくように彼女は言った。

<i>sonna</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>nai</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>
so much		TH	isn't	NMZ	COP.POL
AJNT			P.F		
AJNT			CMPL		FIN

Is there an unrealised *takusan* that we can assume between *ni* and *wa*? Or is it a Subject? How does it work together with the *nai*?

37 PRES 「その時間なら、市中へ向かっている人がほとんどのはずだから、反対車線を走っている車はあまりなかった」と思うのですが、どうでしょう」

<i>hantai-shasen</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>hashitte-iru</i>	<i>kuruma</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>amari</i>	<i>nakatta</i>
opposite-lane	D.O	travel.PROG	car	TH	many	weren't
CMPL		PRED.FIN	SUBJ			
SUBJ					AJNT	PRED.FIN

38 PRES 足も小さく、幅の広い鼻は、ちょっと突き出した下唇にもうすこしでくっつきそ
うだ。

<i>moo</i>	<i>sukoshi</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>kuttsuki</i>	<i>soo</i>	<i>da</i>
another	little-bit	with	stick.INF	soon-will	COP
AJNT			PRED	AJNT	FIN

39 PRES といっても、へんてこりんなことは、へんてこりんだ。

<i>to</i>	<i>itte</i>	<i>mo</i>	<i>hentekorin</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>koto</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>hentekorin</i>	<i>da</i>
QUOT	say.CONC		weird	COP.ADN	thing	TH	weird	COP
AJNT			SUBJ				CMPL	FIN

40 PRES 「教会へ行くのは、何かとくべつな理由があつてのことですか？」

<i>nanika</i>	<i>tokubetsu</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>riyuu</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>atte</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>koto</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>ka</i>
something	special	COP.ADN	reason	NOM	exist.GER	NMZ	thing	COP.POL	Q
AJNT	SUBJ				PRED			FIN	NEG
CMPL									

Is there an unrealised *koto* or *mono* PRESENT behind all *no*? Is it an expanded form? Or am I simply analysing incorrectly?

41 PRES それはまるでその声が、うっそうとした森を突き破ってラグンヒルの心に小さな揺さぶりをかけたかのようだった。

<i>sore</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>maru</i>	<i>de</i>	...	<i>no</i>	<i>yoo</i>	<i>datta</i>
it	TH	just like			GEN	way	COP.PST
SUBJ		AJNT			AJNT		FIN

42 PRES それから、手もちょっと変わっています」

<i>sore</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>te</i>	<i>mo</i>	<i>chotto</i>	<i>kawatte-imasu</i>
that	after	hand	also	a-little	be-different.PROG
AJNT		SUBJ		AJNT	PRED.FIN

43 PRES 「どんな話なんです?」

<i>donna</i>	<i>hanashi</i>	<i>desu</i>
what-kind	story	COP.POL
CMPL		FIN

- 44 PRES 岩が四個か五個あるために草が生えていないだけの、ただのぬかるんだ一角で、水辺に近づける、おそらくは唯一の場所だった。

<i>tada</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>nukarunda</i>	<i>ikkaku</i>	<i>de</i>
merely	GEN	was-muddy	point	COP.GER
AJNT		PRED.FIN	SUBJ	FIN
		CMPL		

- 45 PRES 傷ひとつない肌に、薄赤の斑点が首から胸にかけて数個—見たところであらめに—飛び散っているのが目に留まる。

<i>usuaka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>boten</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>suuko</i>	<i>tobichitte-iru</i>
faint-red	GEN	birth-mark	NOM	few-cl	were.scattered
SUBJ				AJNT	PRED.FIN

- 46 DET セーヘルが彼女の口元へあごをしゃくる。「何なんだ、それ」

<i>nanda</i>	<i>sore</i>
intj: what	that
CMPL.FIN	SUBJ

- 47 PRES 「いま言えるのは、肺から出た、たんぱく質を含んだ液体ではないかってことだな」

<i>hai</i>	<i>kara</i>	<i>deta</i>	<i>ekitai</i>	<i>dewa</i>	<i>nai</i>	<i>ka</i>
lung	from	came-out	fluid	COP.NEG		Q
AJNT		PRED.FIN	SUBJ	FIN		NEG
CMPL						

- 48 PRES 地域を巡回してまわる広報車〈ベッレ・ボリスカー〉にも人員を配さなくてはならないのだが、警官たちは必ずしも、この重要な任務を我先に取り合っているわけではない。

<i>keekan-tachi</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>kanarazushimo</i>	...	<i>toriatte-iru</i>	<i>wake</i>	<i>dewa</i>	<i>nai</i>
policemen	TH	entirely		compete-for	case-of	COP.NEG	
SUBJ		AJNT		CMPL		FIN	

- 49 PRES 「〈セルパン・タルン〉へ行くには、ふたとおりの方法があります」タバコを吸いつけながら、スカッレは言った。

<i>futatoori</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>hoohoo</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>arimasu</i>
two-ways	GEN	method	NOM	exist.POL
SUBJ				PRED.FIN

50 PRES 「コッレ通りだ。[そうたくさんはいない]と思う。家の地図で調べてみたんだ。

<i>soo</i>	<i>takusan</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>inai</i>
so	many	TH	exist.NEG
SUBJ			PRED.FIN

51 PRES 「[どういう勇か]、そのうちわかるさ」

<i>doo</i>	<i>iu</i>	<i>otoko</i>	<i>ka</i>
what-kind		man	Q
CMPL	PRED.FIN	SUBJ	NEG
SUBJ			

52 PRES 「それでも、[理由は必ずあるんですよ]。]

<i>riyuu</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>kanarazu</i>	<i>aru</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
reason	TH	deFinitely	exist	NMZ	COP.POL	EMPH
SUBJ	AJNT	PRED.FIN	CMPL	FIN	NEG	

53 PRES われわれに理解できるような理由だとはかぎりません[が]」セーヘルは言った。

<i>ga</i>
but
AJNT

54 PRES そう訊きながらセーヘルは、[これはいったいどういう質問なんだ]と自分に問うていた。この人たちは、こんな質問にどう答えればいいのか？

<i>kore</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>ittai</i>	<i>doo</i>	<i>iu</i>	<i>shitsumon</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>da</i>
this	TH	...-in-the-world	what-kind		question	COP.ADN	NMZ	COP
SUBJ	AJNT	CMPL	PRED.FIN	SUBJ	FIN			
		CMPL						

55 PRES 「[肉体関係はあったかどうか]、ご存じですか？」軽い口調でセーヘルは訊いた。

<i>nikutai-kankee</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>atta</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>doo</i>	<i>ka</i>
sexual-relationship	TH	exist.PST	whether		
SUBJ		PRED.FIN	NEG		

56 PRES でも、[試合となると]そうは行きません。

<i>shiai</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>naru</i>	<i>to</i>
match	comes-to		if
CMPL	PRED.FIN	AJNT	

- 57 PRON けれど、ひっかかってなかなか進まないので、またくるりと向きを変え、引っぱっていく。

<i>hikakatte</i>	<i>naikanaka</i>	<i>susumanai</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>de</i>
get-caught-on.GER	by-no-means	advance.NEG	NMZ	COP.GER
PRED	AJNT	PRED.FIN		
CMPL				FIN

- 58 PRON 「どなたかが検索に出ているってことですが、そうなんですか?」

<i>soo</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>ka</i>
SO	COP.ADN	NMZ	COP.POL	Q
CMPL	FIN			
CMPL			FIN	NEG

- 59 PRON 「ええ、そうです。」

<i>soo</i>	<i>desu</i>
SO	COP.POL
CMPL	FIN

- 60 PRON 「なんだ、いまのは」男がぐいとブレーキを踏み、バックミラ)を見み。

<i>nanda</i>	<i>ima</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>wa</i>
intj: what	now	GEN	TH
CMPL.FIN	SUBJ		

I think this is a hanging GENitive construction or a zero-nominal, not a nominalisation. My reasoning is that *ima* 'now' cannot be used as a direct adnominal in any other case I can Find. Notice that **ima kanojo* is ill-formed, and does not mean 'her now', though the *ima* could be an adverbial of time in wider, just not a direct modifier to *kanojo*.

ima must be bound to use of *no*, which must cannot then also function as a nominaliser. I am aware that this is a fairly common way to use *no*, but am not sure if it has been grammatically codified (though, upon consideration, it likely has).

- 61 PRON 「エーリセよ。」

<i>eerisse</i>	<i>yo</i>
Elise	EMPH
CMPL	NEG

- 62 PRON 「ポーサンだ。」

<i>poosan</i>	<i>da</i>
Påsan (name)	COP
CMPL	FIN

63 PRON まるでビロードの塊を手をしているようだった。

<i>maru</i>	<i>de</i>		<i>yoo</i>	<i>datta</i>
just like		...	way	COP.PST
AJNT			AJNT	FIN

64 PRON あの子たちにすれば、ちょっとした冒険なんだと思います。」

<i>booken</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>da</i>
adventure	COP.ADN	NMZ	COP
CMPL	FIN		
CMPL			FIN

65 PRON 「何だったんです?」と、かすれた声で訊く。

<i>nan</i>	<i>datta</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>ka</i>
what	COP.PST	NMZ	COP.POL	Q
CMPL	FIN			
CMPL			FIN	NEG

66 PRON いつもよりも短くカットされたその髪は、カールセンが思うに、まるでスチールのブラシだった。

<i>mijikaku</i>	<i>katto-sareta</i>	<i>sono</i>	<i>kami</i>
short.INF	cut.be.psv.PST	that	hair
AJNT	PRED.FIN	SUBJ	

67 PRON 「小屋というと、ブレーヴィクの近くでしたっけ?」

<i>deshita</i>	<i>kke</i>
COP.POL	Q
CMPL	NEG

68 PRON まったく信じられんよ」

<i>mattaku</i>	<i>shinjiraren</i>	<i>yo</i>
completely	believe.pot.NEG.COL	EMPH
AJNT	PRED.FIN	NEG

69 PRON これはあまりに少なすぎる。

<i>kore</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>amari</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>sukunasa-sugiru</i>
this	TH	far too		be-few.exceed
SUBJ	AJNT	PRED.CMPL		

70	PRON	なんといっても六時間 だよ」感慨深げにセーヘルは言った。「これはかなりの時間だ。」
----	------	---

<i>kore</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>kanari</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>jikan</i>	<i>da</i>
this	TH	quite	GEN	time	COP
SUBJ		CMPL			FIN

71	PRON	髪の毛まで、きれいに整えられているように見えるじゃないか。
----	------	-------------------------------

<i>sonaerarete-iru</i>
have-ready.psv.PROG
PRED.FIN

72	PRON	「それが何らかの慰めになるってことですか?」スカッレが訊く。
----	------	--------------------------------

<i>sore</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>nanraka</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>nagusame</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>naro</i>	<i>tte</i>	<i>koto</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>ka</i>
that	NOM	some-kind-of	GEN	consolation	to	prove-[to]-be.CONJ	called	thing	COP.POL	Q
SUBJ		CMPL				PRED.FIN				
		CMPL							FIN	NEG

This is a troublesome sentence for my working hypothesis. Subj seems as though it should belong to the inner clause. Conversely, that brings up the question of what the outer Subject should be. It may be that the hypothesis needs expansion, or that even within my working hypothesis, I am analysing this sentence incorrectly.

73	PRON	「殺人事件にですか? ぼくからすれば、クリスマスプレゼントみたいなものですよ。」
----	------	--

<i>kurisumasu-puresento</i>	<i>mitai</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>mon</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
christmas PRESENT	similar-to	COP.ADN	thing	COP.POL	EMPH
CMPL	AJNT	FIN	SUBJ		
CMPL				FIN	NEG

74	PRON	ひとつだけ突出しているのが、オレンジ色だ。
----	------	-----------------------

<i>no</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>orenji-iro</i>	<i>da</i>
NMZ	NOM	orange-coloured	COP
SUBJ		CMPL	FIN

75	PRON	「それは去年の冬、撮った写真です」
----	------	-------------------

<i>sore</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>kyonen</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>fuyu</i>	<i>totta</i>	<i>shashin</i>	<i>desu</i>
that	TH	last-year	GEN	winter	taken	photo	COP.POL
SUBJ		AJNT			PRED.FIN	SUBJ	
		CMPL					FIN

76 PRON 「海蛇です」と、母親は静かに言う。

<i>umihebi</i>	<i>desu</i>
seaserpent	COP.POL
CMPL	FIN

77 PRON 古くからの言い伝えで、

<i>iitsutae</i>	<i>de</i>
legend	COP.GER
CMPL	FIN?

This is another troubling sentence pattern. In particular, it is copular gerund that causes trouble under my working hypothesis. If the copula is always the Finite, why does it here have the gerund form, which is not FINite in and of itself? To this question, one might add that there are definite Finites in all premodifying/embedded clauses. Is there a stage between Predicate and Finite? That is unlikely, and seems like it would needlessly complicate the system. On the other hand, is the copular GERund a suspended form to the extent that it does not have a class? Does it make the entire clause an Adjunct to the main clause? Further analysis may tell.

78 PRON そしてこれは、ほんの手始めです。

<i>kore</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>hon</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>tehajime</i>	<i>desu</i>
this	TH	mere		beginning	COP.POL
SUBJ		CMPL			FIN

79 REL 実際、一見すると、自分で横たわったように見えるのだ。衣服はあたりに投げ散らすのではなく、横にきちんと積み重ねられている。

<i>ifuku</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>yoko</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>kichinto</i>	<i>tsumi-kasanerarete-iru</i>
clothes	TH	side	at	properly	pile-up.psv.PROG
SUBJ		AJNT	AJNT		PRED.FIN

80 REL 「タバコ、よろしいですか？」

<i>tabako</i>	<i>yoroshii</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>ka</i>
cigarette	OK	COP.POL	Q
SUBJ	CMPL	FIN	NEG

81 REL 「ということは、ご近所のかたがたと、互によく知っているってことでしょう？」

<i>tagai</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>yoku</i>	<i>shitte-iru</i>	<i>tte</i>	<i>koto</i>	<i>deshoo</i>
each other	well	know.PROG	called	thing		COP.POL.CONJ
AJNT	AJNT	PRED.FIN				
		CMPL				FIN

82 REL 何かあったのではないかと彼は考えています」

<i>nani-ka</i>	<i>atta</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>nai</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>kare</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>kangaete-imasu</i>
something	happened	NMZ	COP.NEG		Q	QUOT	he	Th	think.PROG.POL	
SUBJ	PRED.FIN									
CMPL			FIN		NEG					
CMPL							SUBJ		PRED.FIN	

83 VAG ヴァンはお父さんのなんですよ。

<i>van</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>otoosan</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
van	TH	father	GEN	COP.ADN	NMZ	COP.POL	EMPH
SUBJ		CMPL		FIN		FIN	NEG
SUBJ		CMPL				FIN	NEG

84 VAG 「危険だ」からね。

<i>iken</i>	<i>da</i>
dangerous	COP
CMPL	FIN

85 VAG 一応、正式の手続きを踏んでいるだけで、

<i>ichioo</i>	<i>seishiki</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>tetsudzuki</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>funde-iru</i>	<i>dake</i>	<i>de</i>
just-in-case	formal	GEN	procedure	D.O	follow.PROG	only	COP.GER
AJNT	CMPL				PRED.FIN		FIN
	CMPL?						FIN

If I follow my earlier analysis of the copula, *dake* should be an Adjunct, as should *yoo*, *soo* and so on. However, this conflicts with the other thing I thought I had discovered, that the copula must have a complement. Yet, if I posit that premodifying/embedded clauses completely adopt the role of their head element, then *dake* will have to be a complement in this sentence.

Although it doesn't seem promising, one last possibility might be that the Finite may apply directly to the particle, in spite of what Japanese grammar insists. After all, we have already seen the polite copula form used on the negative copula (probably to upgrade the politeness level of the statement). In this case, that would mean that *dake* could still be an Adjunct. However, that does still leave the problem of order, since Japanese can be very strict about word order.

86 VAG 悪い知らせではないようにと願っていると、電話はミセス・アルバムだった。

<i>denwa</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>misesu-arubumu</i>	<i>datta</i>
telephone	TH	Mrs. Album	COP.PST
SUBJ		CMPL	FIN

87 VAG 中にいれば、ここが高層の集合住宅であることなど、すぐに忘れてしまう。

<i>koko</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>koosoo</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>shuugoo-jitaku</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>aru</i>
here	NOM	high-rise	GEN	apartment building	COP	
SUBJ		CMPL			FIN	

88 VAG 「それは彼女のボーイフレンドのイニシャルです。

<i>sore</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>kanojo</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>boofurendo</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>inisharu</i>	<i>desu</i>
that	TH	her	GEN	boyfriend	GEN	initials	COP.POL
SUBJ		CMPL				FIN	

89 VAG 「いいとも」

<i>ii</i>	<i>tomo</i>
OK	of-course
PRED.FIN	NEG

90 VAG 「シーヴェンでした。

<i>shiiven</i>	<i>deshita</i>
Siven (name)	COP.POL.PST
CMPL	FIN

91 VAG 耳を疑いましたよ……」

<i>mimi</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>utagaimashita</i>	<i>yo</i>
ears	D.O	doubt.POL.PST	EMPH
CMPL		PRED.FIN	NEG

92 VAG 仲良くしたり、疎遠になったりしてましたけど、最近はうまくいったみたいで
ず。わたしの知るかぎりでは」

<i>saikin</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>umaku</i>	<i>itte-ta</i>
lately	TH	well	go.PROG.COL
AJNT	AJNT	PRED.FIN	

93 VAG 「そのようなものではありませんでした」 アーダは言った。

<i>sono</i>	<i>yoo</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>mono</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>arimasen</i>	<i>deshita</i>
that	kind	COP.ADN	thing	TH	exist.POL.NEG	COP.POL.PST
CMPL		FIN	SUBJ	PRED		FIN
SUBJ						

Here we see that with the negative polite past of verbs, the negative is clearly connected to the Predicator, and not the Finite. It may be that the division of words is arbitrary—considering cases like the NEGative copula—and say that the Finite ‘border’ is on or after the

–mas- element. This can be supported with the fact that the negative may not precede the passive and potential auxiliaries. Moreover, I could say that the *deshita* seen here is not the actual copula, since it is not acting alone. This holds up well if we again consider that the negative copula is realised through the negative of *aru* ‘to be’, which is the verb at work here as well. This should be compared with the copula GERund + nonpast consideration seen above.

94 VAG 「そういう歳なんですよ」 母鵜が割ってはいった。

<i>soo</i>	<i>iu</i>	<i>toshi</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>	<i>yo</i>
that kind of		age	COP.POL	NMZ	COP.POL	EMPH
CMPL	P.F	SUBJ	FIN		FIN	NEG
CMPL						
CMPL						

95 VAG 「そんな理由ではやめんだろう」 と、夫が異を唱えた。

<i>sonna</i>	<i>riyuu</i>	<i>dewa</i>	<i>yamen</i>	<i>daroo</i>
that-kind-of	reason	COP.cond	quit.NEG.COL	COP.CONJ
AJNT			PRED	FIN

Once again, we see that copula being used on a verb. Not surprisingly, it is another colloquial use, but spoken language may well give clues to the unlying language structure. Conversely, of course, it may also be affected by incorrect use. The fact that it is a written text probably decreases the cases of it being simply failed speech. On the other hand, it is difficult to know completely what the translator is thinking.

The negative CONJectural is attested as being expressed through the negative form of a verb follow by the CONJectural form of the copula (Frellesvig 2010: 335). It is therefore not impossible that the copula may be used with the positive form of the verb as well, especially where polite language is involved.

96 VAG ちょっと・・・奇妙だと思ったわけですね？」

<i>kimyoo</i>	<i>da</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>omotta</i>
strange	COP	QUOT	thought
CMPL	FIN		
CMPL			PRED.FIN

97 VAG, VAG 自慢するわけじゃなく 事実そうなんです」 父親は言った。

<i>jiman-suru</i>	<i>wake</i>	<i>janku</i>	<i>jijitsu</i>	<i>soo</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>desu</i>
boast	case-of	COP.NEG.INF	truth	seems	COP.ADN	NMZ	COP.POL
PRED			CMPL	AJNT	FIN		
CMPL?		FIN	CMPL				FIN

This is another tricky case, almost precisely the same as above. The problem is that, if I assume that *wake* and *soo* are Adjuncts – the reasoning behind that being that they affect the Mood, specifically the validity modality – that conflicts with the idea that the Finite, specifically the copula, needs a Complement. Conversely, if I say that *wake* and *soo* indeed are complements, then do they not lose their Adjunct function, which again affects how Mood is constructed? (In the version of SFL I use, it is Subject + Finite + Mood Adjuncts.) The solution I have suggested above is that *wake* and *soo* and similar words really are Adjuncts, and are part of the Mood. The problem with this solution is that it requires the embedded clauses premodifying the Adjunct to ‘skip over’ it and connect with the Finite that follows. That idea does not gel with the fact that these presumptive words cannot undergo movement; they must appear before some form of the copula. Hence, they behave like position-restricted nominalizers.

11.3 APPENDIX C: SD DET ER-SENTENCES IN NORWEGIAN (SFL)

1	cloc	Det kunne ikke falle Holthemann inn å si nei, ikke når det var Sejer som spurte.	det	var	Sejer	som	spurte	
			SUBJ	FIN	CMPL		SUBJ	
2	cloc	– Kanskje det er derfor hun har tatt dem av, smilte han.	det	er	derfor	hun	har	tatt dem av
			SUBJ	FIN	CMPL		SUBJ	
3	cloc	Når han likevel hadde flyttet inn for tjue år siden med kona Elise, var det fordi leiligheten hadde en ypperlig planløsning og en svimlende utsikt.	var	det	fordi	leiligheten	hadde	en ypperlig planløsning
			FIN	SUBJ			CMPL	
4	cloc	Det er jo sånn unger er, dez prøver seg på ting og så slutter de.	det	er	jo	sånn	unger	er
			SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL	SUBJ	
5	cloc	Hvis du er ute og ror, og hører at det bruser bak båten, er det sjøormen som stiger opp fra dypet.	er	det	sjøormen	som	stiger	opp fra dypet
			FIN	SUBJ	CMPL		SUBJ	
8	cpres	I virkeligheten var det sauer som beitet på toppen.	I	virkeligheten	var	det	sauer	som beitet på toppen
				AJNT	FIN	SUBJ	CMPL	SUBJ
13	cpres	Sejer tok det, tenkte det kanskje var Ingrid som ville ham noe, han trengte jo ikke ta sorgene på forskudd.	det	var	kanskje	Ingrid	som	ville ham noe
			SUBJ	VAR	AJNT	CMPL		SUBJ
16	cpres	Et annet sted var det noen som ventet, som gløttet mot vinduet og i retning telefonen, og som ventet forjeves.	Et	annet	sted	var	det	noen som ventet
				AJNT	FIN	SUBJ	CMPL	SUBJ
21	imp	– Det er jo kjempelangt! sutret hun.	det	er	jo	kjempelangt		
			SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL		
23	imp	De klærne der er ikke flådd av med makt, det er i hvert fall sikkert.	det	er	i hvert fall	sikkert		
			SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL		
24	imp	Det var egentlig tida nå.	det	var	egentlig	tida	nå	
			SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL	AJNT	
25	imp	Det er kvelden.	det	er	kvelden			
			SUBJ	FIN	CMPL			
28	imp	– Vi ringte etter henne klokka elleve i går kveld, for da syntes vi det var mer enn seint nok.	det	var	mer	enn	seint	nok
			SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL	AJNT	

35

pres

– Det er plass til vogna bak.

det

er

plass

til

vogna

bak

SUBJ

FIN

CMPL

AJNT

37

pres

– Jeg skulle tro, sa Sejer,— at på den tida kjører de fleste innover mot byen, og at det kanskje er lite trafikk den motsatte veien?

det

er

kanskje

lite

trafikk

den

motsatte

veien

SUBJ

FIN

AJNT

CMPL

AJNT

44

pres

Snarere var det en mudrete flekk med fire-fem store steiner, akkurat nok til å holde sivet unna, og kanskje det eneste stedet man kunne komme helt ned til vannet.

snarere

var

det

en

mudrete

flekk

AJNT

FIN

SUBJ

CMPL

47

pres

– Umiddelbart vil jeg tro det er væske fra lungene, inneholdende protein.

det

er

væske

fra

lungene

SUBJ

FIN

CMPL

51

pres

– Vi får vel se hva slags type det er.

hva

slags

type

det

er

CMPL

SUBJ

FIN

53

pres

Ikke alltid en grunn vi kan forstå, men det er en grunn.

det

er

en

grunn

SUBJ

FIN

CMPL

79

rel

Det så virkelig ut som om hun hadde lagt seg til selv, og det var sant at klærne lå ordnet ved siden av, ikke slengt omkring.

det

var

sant

at

klærne

lå

ordnet

ved

siden

av

SUBJ

FIN

CMPL

SUBJ

80

rel

– Er det greit om jeg tar en røyk?

er

det

greit

om

jeg

tar

en

røyk

FIN

SUBJ

CMPL

SUBJ

84

vag

– Det er farlig.

det

er

farlig

SUBJ

FIN

CMPL

85

vag

Det var allerede klart.

det

var

allerede

klart

SUBJ

FIN

AJNT

CMPL

87

vag

Innvendig glemt man fort hva slags bygg det var, innvendig var leiligheten hyggelig og lun, og kledd med panel.

hva

slags

bygg

det

var

CMPL

SUBJ

FIN

90

vag

– Det var Siven.

det

var

Siven

SUBJ

FIN

CMPL

91

vag

Jeg trodde ikke det var sant—.

det

var

sant

SUBJ

FIN

CMPL

93 vag – Det var ikke noe sånt, sa hun bestemt.

det	var	ikke	noe	sånt
SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL	

97 vag,
vag Det er ikke skryt, det er bare sånn, la han til.

det	er	ikke	skryt	det	er	bare	sånn
SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL	SUBJ	FIN	AJNT	CMPL

11.4 APPENDIX D: KM WITH CONSTITUENT CORRELATION ANALYSIS

11.4.1 CLEFT PRESENTATIONAL

1. Og enda var det noe mer som fattern opplagt må ha hatt i tankene.
NO CORRELATION
お父さんが因縁だと考えるのも無理はない。
2. Det var noe i lufta som luktet honning. Cf. Også her lukta det honning.
POOR CORRELATION: -ga shite **GOOD CORRELATION: -ga shite**
ハチミツの匂いがして、 cf. ここでもハチミツの匂いがした。
3. - Det er vel bare noen unger som begraver marihøner her, sa han – tydelig i beit for en bedre forklaring.
POOR CORRELATION: -ga no kamoshirenai
「子どもたちが、テントウムシを埋めたのかもしれないぞ。--そうとは思えない」
4. - Det er noen som mener han er en trollmann, hvasket bonden.
GOOD CORRELATION: -mo iru, relative clause
5. 「あいつは魔法使いだと言う奴もいるよ」お百姓は声をひそめた。
6. - Det er de som hevder at han ikke bare baker kaker og brød, men at han lager disse fiskene sine selv.
NO CORRELATION
「あのじいさんはパンやクッキーを焼くだけじゃなくって、魚も自分で造ってしまうという話だ。」
7. Det var noen få setninger som stadig sang i ørene mine.
POOR CORRELATION: progressive aspect, dropped -ga
私の耳に残っているあの言葉。
8. Men det var også noe ved det gamle huset som hadde satt mine egne tanker i sving.
NO CORRELATION
老人の住む小屋のことまでいろいろ言われているようだ。
9. Det var ingen i landsbyen som syntes at de kjente ham.
POOR CORRELATION: ingen =/= washi dake, no-wa datta
村人の中でハンスと親しくなったのはわしだけだった。
10. - Det var også de som sa at Maria var navnet på en skute han hadde seilt med, og at den skuta hadde forlist et sted i det store Atlanterhavet.
POOR CORRELATION: agency intact, relative intact
「またある人は、マリアというのはパン屋のハンスが乗っていた船の名前で、その船は大西洋で難破したんだと言った」

11. - Men **er det** ikke store fjell som skiller elvene fra hverandre? spurte jeg nå.
GOOD CORRELATION: -ga a.ru-n
 「でも、川と川の間に高い山**があるん**じゃないの？」
12. - **Hva er det** du preiker om? avbrøt jeg, det hendte jeg ble litt irritert når han snakka i gåter.
POOR CORRELATION: -ga, no, nani = hva
 「**何が**言いたい**の**？」お父さんが謎めいたことを言うと、ぼくはいらいらしてしまう。
13. - **Hva er det** dere lærer på skolen, Hans Thomas? spurte fatteren.
POOR CORRELATION: -n da, nani = hva
 「いったい学校で、**何を**習ってる**んだ**い、ハンス・トマス」
14. Og for det andre er jeg redd for at **det ikke er flere enn meg** som har oppdaga den.
POOR CORRELATION: relative clause intact, -no-wa NP na-no
 次に、それを発見した**のはおれくらいなものなのさ**」

11.4.2 DEPENDENT CLAUSES

15. **Det var temmelig opplagt** ut fra de bildene at hun ennå ikke hadde funnet seg selv.
CORRELATION: -yoo datta
 写真で見えるかぎり、ママがまだ自分自身を見つけていない**ようだった**。
16. **Det var nok fordi** vi var kommet til Tyskland at fatteren igjen begynte å snakke om det som skjedde med farmor og farfar.
SOME CORRELATION: -tara + -no daroo
 ぼくたちがドイツへ**入ったら**、お父さんは自分の母親とドイツ人の父親のことをまた話したくなった**のだろう**。
17. **Det er dessverre ikke alltid sånn** at man velger hvem man blir glad i.
NO CORRELATION
 でも、また会う約束をしなかったら、好きにならなかったかもしれない。
18. - **Var det** ikke sant at lupen lå i magen til et rådyr? mumla jeg.
POOR CORRELATION: relative intact
 「ルーペがノロジカのお腹にあった**ってこと**？」
19. Jeg syntes **det var feigt at** han ikke ville være med meg.
POOR CORRELATION: relative intact, nante Theme, Japanese i-adjectives include/are copula
 一緒に来てくれない**なんてひどい**。
20. **Det var ikke for ingenting** at han var tyskerunge.
NO CORRELATION
 ドイツ兵の子どもだから、例外なのかもしれない。

21. Jeg syntes **det var litt pussig** at dette bakeriet var åpent om kvelden.
NO CORRELATION
 パン屋が夜お店を開けている**はずないのに**。
22. **Det er bedre** at bare ett menneske kjenner dvergenes hemmelighet enn at alle mennesker glemmer den.
CORRELATION: -ga AP no da
 小人の物語は、多くの人に知られて忘れられるよりも、たった一人の人によくわかってもらっ**た**
ほうがずっといいのだ。
23. Så **var det** plutselig en kveld jeg kom sent hjem fra Dorf.
NO CORRELATION
 その晩、私がドルフから遅く戻って来て、家の中へ入ると、
24. Her i Dorf **var det alltid slik** at gutte**NE**Gikk hjemme med moren til de var syv--åtte år, men allerede fra de fylte åtte, begynte de å følge med faren til arbeid i skog og mark.
CORRELATION: -koto ni na-tte-i.ta
 ドルフの村**では**どこの家**でも**、男の子たちは七、八歳になるまでは母親のそばで過ごし、満八歳を過ぎる**と**、父親と一緒に山仕事や畑仕事をする**ことになっていた**。
25. Nåvel – **det var på mer enn én måte** at dette slagsmålet ble et vendepunkt i livet mitt.
POSSIBLE CORRELATION: could this be a copula and not a particle
 さて、このけんかは**いろいろな意味で**わしの人生の転機となった。
26. Og det er viktig, gutten min, for **det er** ikke sikkert at jeg har så lenge igjen.
POOR CORRELATION: -n da-to
 これは大事なことなんだ、息子よ。**おれは**もうこの先長くない**んだよ**』
27. **Det var ikke sikkert** at vi ville finne henne, og selv om vi fant henne, **var det ikke sikkert** at hun ville være med om hjem til Norge.
NO CORRELATION
 見つかる**かどうか、わからない**。たとえ見つけたとしても、ママがぼくたちと一緒にノルウェーへ帰る**かどうかわからない**。

11.4.3 IMPERSONAL

28. **Det var bare** å knipse noen drakmer inn i buret, så var bladet ditt.
NO CORRELATION
 キオスクでお金を出せ**ば**、はいどうぞと渡してもらえる。
29. Fordi hun var blankskallet som en gammel mann, måtte hun bruke lue selv om **det var vår** og varmt i været.
CORRELATION: -ga
 おばあちゃんは年とった男の人みたいに髪の毛が亡くなってしまったから、**春が着て**暖かくなっても帽子をかぶっていなければならなかった。

30. Her var det nesten helt øde, bare et og annet sveitserhus lå strødd mellom trærne på de høye åskammene.

CORRELATION: -wa da.tta

あたりはほとんど荒地だった。山の木の間にスイス風の家がときどき見えただけだった。

Snart begynte det å bli mørkt også, det var rett før jeg sovna i baksetet.

NO CORRELATION

おまけに、まもなく暗くなってきた。ぼくが眠りかけたとき、

31. Det var helt mørkt nå.

CORRELATION: da.tta

もう真っ暗だった。

32. Når jeg huska høyt opp i lufta, var det som å kikke ned på en av landsbyene i Legoland.

CORRELATION: -yoo-na kibun-ni na-tta

ブランコで空中高く上がると、レゴランドの村を見下ろしているような気分になった。

33. Akkurat idet jeg begynte å bli lei av alpehusken kom fattern ut og ropte at det var frokost.

CORRELATION: da-yo

ちょうどブランコにあきてきたとき、お父さんが出て来て、朝ごはんだよと呼んだ。

34. Selv om det var midt på sommeren, blåste det tvers igjennom klærne her oppe på fjellet.

CORRELATION: da

真夏だよというのに、山の上の冷たい風が、服の中を縦横に通り抜けて行った。

35. Da vi kom ned til Dorf, var det allerede seint på ettermiddagen.

CORRELATION: da.tta

ドルフに戻ったのは、午後もかなり遅くなってからだった。

36. - Det er ikke ... så langt fra Arendal, stotra jeg.

CORRELATION: AP.ku-a.ri.mas.en

「アーレンダールから・・・そう遠くありません・・・」ぼくは口ごもった。

37. Det var lørdag kveld.

CORRELATION: da.tta

土曜日の夜だった。

38. Det var rett før jeg sovna over lupen og bolleboka.

NO CORRELATION

いよいよ眠くなるまで、ぼくはルーペでパンの中から出て来た豆本を読んでいた。

39. – Nå må vi to snakke sammen, for nå **er det** ikke lenge igjen til mor skal dø.
CORRELATION: -wa -n da-yo
 お母さんはもう、長いことない**んだよ**」
40. **Det var** da fire-fem guttunger hadde kastet seg over meg rett utenfor bakeriet.
CORRELATION: -wa -koto-ga a-tta
 わしはパン屋の店の前で四、五人の若者に殴られた**ことがあった**。
41. Bare jeg myste litt med øynene, **var det som** om jeg kjørte gjennom dette landet akkurat nå.
CORRELATION: -yoo-na kibun
 目をつぶると、おとぎ話の国を通過している**ような気分になった**。
42. **Det var som** om han ikke hadde noe mer på hjertet enn å slå fast at vi omsider hadde kommet til havet.
CORRELATION: -mita.i da
 もう海に着いたのだと思い込んでいる**みたいだ**。
43. – Vel, sa fattern, – for det første **er det** ikke så veldig lenge siden**]**den ble oppdaga.
CORRELATION: -wa -na-no da
 「まず、その惑星は発見されたばかり**なんだ**。
44. **Det var ikke** spesielt høyt under taket, men når jeg betraktet huset fra utsiden, **var det** tydelig at det måtte ha et stort loft.
CORRELATION: -de-mo na.i-no-ni **NO CORRELATION: modality lost**
 天井はことさら高いというわけ**でもないのに**、外から見ると、屋根**が高い**。

11.4.4 INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

45. Jeg hadde nemlig lært meg at **det var lurt** å vente med å be om å få noe til fattern begynte å lufte de skrudde ideene sine.
CORRELATION: VP.PST hoo-ga A
 お父さんが哲学者ぶったことを話し始めたら、もっと続けるまで待って**たほうがいい**。
46. Både fattern og jeg innså at **det var på tide** å finne seg selv når man hadde rukket å bli mamma til en gutt på fire år, så vi støtta selve prosjektet.
NO CORRELATION
 ぼくもお父さんも、子どもが四歳くらいになると、母親は自分自身を見つけ**たくなるのだろう**と思うことにした。だから、ぼくもお父さんもちゃんと生きてきた。
47. Han mente dessuten at jo vakrere en kvinne er, jo **vanskeligere er det** for henne å finne seg selv.
CORRELATION: V_{inf}-no-ga mono da
 お父さんは、女性というものは、美しければ美しいほど、**自分自身を見つけるのが** **難しくなるものだ**と言った。

48. Han mente at **det var bedre** **å ha bilder av en som lignet på mamma** enn ikke å ha noen bilder i det hele tatt.

CORRELATION: AP-to i.u koto

ママに似た人の写真はほかのものよりずっといいということらしい。

49. Jeg har ikke kjent på kroppen **hvordan det er** **å vokse opp** i en liten sørlandsby uten pappa.

CORRELATION: -to-ha doo i.u koto

ぼくは、父親のいない子どもはノルウェーの南部の小さな町で育つとはどういうことか、体で知っているわけではない。

50. Alle vet at **det ikke var lett** **å skaffe seg mat** under krigen.

CORRELATION: -no-mo A-ka-tta

戦争中のノルウェーは食料を手に入れるのも難しかった。

51. **Det var ikke trygt** for henne å være i Arendal lenger.

CORRELATION: -no-wa A/N da.tta

アーレンダールにそれ以上いるのは危険だったから、

52. – Hvorfor det? spurte jeg, **det var alltid lettere** å spørre enn å svare.

CORRELATION: V.NPST hoo-ga A.i

「どうしてわらうの？」答えるより聞くほうが易しい。

53. Jeg fant en maur som krøyp på en liten pinne, men den ville ikke ligge stille, derfor **var** **det umulig** å undersøke den.

CORRELATION: -no-wa A/N da

小枝の上を這っているアリを見つけたが、アリはじっとしていてくれないから、ルーペで見るのは無理だ。

54. – Men **er det ikke litt underlig** å pynte opp i skogbunnen så langt fra folk?

CORRELATION: -nan-te AP-ja na.i

「人里離れた森の中が、こんなにきれいになっているなんて、ちょっと不思議じゃない？」

55. Samme året døde far, **det er vel riktig** å si at han drakk seg i hjel.

CORRELATION: -no-ga A/N-da-rou

わしの父親はお酒を飲みすぎて死んだというのが本当だろう。

56. **Det var ikke helt enkelt** å holde alle bakerne i Dorf fra hverandre.

CORRELATION: -no-wa AP.i

ドルフのパン屋に出て来る人を、それぞれはつきりさせておくのはなかなか難しい。

57. Dama på gjestehuset viste oss et fjell med super utsikt, men **det var litt langt** for oss å gå både opp og ned når **det allerede var så langt på dag**, mente hun.

CORRELATION: Adv N-ga a.ru, -no-wa A/N-da

太った女の人が、山の上に見晴らしのいいところがあると教えてくれた。けれど、かなり距離があるから、この時間からでは、ぼくたちの足で登って下りて来るのは無理だという。

58. Jeg synes **det er litt vanskeligere** å ta stilling til om det også var riktig å straffe barnet.

NO CORRELATION: formulation different

けれど、生まれた子どもまで罰を受けるのはおかしい。

59. Jeg syntes **det var så gørr kjedelig** å se på at jeg tok med meg ei flaske bringebærbrus og gikk opp på soverommet.

CORRELATION: -mo A/N da

見えていても退屈だから、ぼくはキイチゴジュースのびんを持って寝室へ行った。

11.4.5 PRESENTATIONAL

60. Akkurat det var kanskje ikke så pussig, men for fattern **stoppa det ikke** med det.

CORRELATION: -de-wa osamar-.ana.i

興味を持つだけならいいけれど、お父さんはそれだけでは収まらない。

61. Men **enda var det noe mer:**

POOR CORRELATION: motto implies another existence, colon in Norwegian indicates speech

お父さんは、もっとすごいことを言う。

62. Ellers **er det stor fare for** at de roter seg bort for godt.

CORRELATION: -shimau-ka-mo shire.na.i

でないと、迷子になって死ぬまで帰れなくなっちゃうかもしれない。

63. **Det var gått så mange år** siden mamma reiste fra oss at jeg ikke huska ordentlig hvordan hun så ut.

POOR CORRELATION: ta.tte-i.ru = det var gått (NB: this a verbal, not a copular, presentational)

ママが行ってしまってから八年もたっているから、ぼくは、ママの顔もちゃんと覚えていない。

64. **Det var ikke så rent få** av disse jentene dessverre, men **det gikk aller hardest ut over** dem som hadde fått barn med en tysker.

CORRELATION: -wa VP, -wa AdvP VP

そういうかわいそうなノルウェー娘はかなりの数にのぼった。中でも、ドイツ兵の子どもを生んだ人は特にひどい目にあった。

65. Jeg tror **det er en slektsforbannelse**.

POOR CORRELATION: det er en s... is presentational, ie. existential, use. {kore-wa da} is identifying, ie. pronominal use.

これは家系の因縁だと思ふよ」

66. Utenfor – altså utenfor dette frøet vi lever på, Hans Thomas – **der er det** mange milliarder galakser.

CORRELATION: -ni-ha NP-ga a.ru

おれたちは一粒の種みたいに小さいところで生きているってことさ。宇宙には数えきれないほど星雲がある。

67. Og Gud vet hvor mange kloder det er!

CORRELATION: -ga cl a.ru-no-ka

地球のような星がいくつあるのかは、神様じゃなきゃわからない」

68. Men det er ikke noe departement for filosofi.

CORRELATION: -no-wa na.i

哲学省というのはない。

69. Det var bare plass til fire bord i den, og som om det ikke var nok, var fattern og jeg de eneste gjestene.

CORRELATION: -no-ga Adv da

テーブルを四つ置くのがやっとだ。その上、お客はお父さんとぼくだけだった。

70. Ved siden av spisesalen var det en stor restaurant, men den var stengt.

CORRELATION: -mo a.tta

食堂の隣に大きなレストランもあったが、閉めてあった。

71. Da spør man om det er bilvei opp til toppen av fjellet, så klart.

CORRELATION: -wa na.i-n des.u

車で登れる道はないんですかと聞いた。

72. Dama svarte at det var det, men hvis vi bilte opp og gikk ned igjen, måtte vi allikevel gå opp på fjellet for å hente bilen etterpå.

CORRELATION: -wa a.ru

すると女の方は、車の道はあるけれど、車で登って歩いて下りて来れば、車を取りにまた登らなければならないでしょう、と言った。

73. Det var sikkert flere hundre i alt, alle var glatte og runde, og ingen var større enn sukkerbiter.

CORRELATION: Adv 100-cl a.ru

全部で少なくとも数百個ある。どの石も滑らかで丸い。角砂糖より大きいのは一つもない。

74. Selv om det var mange fine eventyrhus her, syntes jeg at den lille alpelandbyen var drepande kjedelig.

NO CORRELATION

アルプスはすばらしいところだって聞いていたのに、この小さな村はひどく退屈だ。

75. – Jeg visste ikke at det var flere enn én, sa jeg, som sant var.

POOR CORRELATION: having seen something implies its (theoretical) existence

「一匹しか見てないよ」私は本当にそう思っていた。

76. Han hadde satt dem ut i solen alle som en, og det var ikke så rent få av dem, det kan du skrive opp, bakergutt.

CORRELATION: Adv *cl i.ta*

「けっこうたくさんいたってよ。みんな一緒に日光浴させてたんだと。嘘じゃないよ、パン屋の若造」

77. Jeg trodde lenge at **det var så mye snakk** om den gamle bakeren bare fordi han bodde for seg selv rett ovenfor selve landsbyen.

POOR CORRELATION: being subject to gossip entails the existence of gossip

パン屋の老人が村から離れた山の上に一人で暮らしていれば、**何かと噂されるの**も当然だろう。

78. Forskjellen var bare at den boka hadde så store bokstaver at **det ikke var plass** til mer enn femten-tjue ord på hver side.

NO CORRELATION

中では大きな字で書いてあって、一ページせいぜい十五字から二十字しかなかった。

79. Først sa jeg at jeg undersøkte om **det var noen lopper eller lus** i baksetet.

CORRELATION: -ga i.na.i

最初はルーペで後ろの席に**ノミやシラミがいない**かどうか調べているんだと答えた。

80. **Det var noe med** måten han sa det på. Og **det var noe med** situasjonen.

CORRELATION: mono-ga a.tta

パン屋のハンスの言い方にも雰囲気にも特別の**ものがあった**。

81. **Det er ingen sjørøvere** her.

CORRELATION: -nan-ka i.ya shi.na.i-yo [assuming i.te-ha shi.na.i]

ここには**海賊なんかいやしないよ**」

82. Men enda **er det mange andre elver**, skjønner du, og alle drikker sine første slurker her oppe i Alpene.

CORRELATION: cl-mo NP-ga a.ru-n da

しかし、**そのほかにもいくつも川があるんだ**。知ってるだろう。どの川もみんなここアルプスで最初のひと口を飲んでいるんだよ」

83. - **Er det tilfelle?** spurte jeg nå.

CORRELATION: [-wa/-ga] A/N [da]

VÆRE tilfelle = hontoo-de aru koto

「**それ、ほんと?**」

84. - Jepp! **Det er like sant** som Sankt Gotthard-tunnelen.

CORRELATION: Adv A/N [da]

「ほんとだとも。サン・ゴタール・トンネル**は本当**にあるのと**同じくらい本当**さ。

85. - **Er det tilfelle?**

POOR CORRELATION: [-wa/-ga] A/N [da]

「**ほんと?**」

86. Øverst i kanten var det gått et stort skår av glasset i bollen.
CORRELATION: Adv V_i.te-i.ta
 金魚鉢の縁が一力所、かなり大きく欠けていた。
87. Det er nøyaktig like langt herfra til Venezia som det var fra den bensinstasjonen.
CORRELATION: -ga Adv N a.tta-n da (NB: this a verbal pres., not a copular pres.)
 ガソリンスタンドからここまでが、ここからヴェネツィアまでと同じくらいあったんだ。

11.4.6 PRONOMINAL USE

88. I dag vet jeg at det er noe alle mennesker må passe seg for.
NO CORRELATION (suppressed, could be: 'i dag vet jeg det')
 今のぼくなら、わかるけど。
89. Farmor har naturligvis sin del av skylda for at hun ble med barn, det er noe hun aldri har nektet for heller.
NO CORRELATION
 おばあちゃんが子どもを産んだのは、当然自分の責任だ。おばあちゃんがこれを否定しようとしたことはない。
90. Men det er lett for meg å si.
NO CORRELATION
 でも、現実はそうじゃなかったんだ。
91. Det er for eksempel et interessant spørsmål i hvor mange slektsledd en forbrytelse bør straffes.
NO CORRELATION
 何代も後まで罰を受ける必要があるだろうか。
92. Det er den eneste fordel de kan rose seg av.
CORRELATION: det = sore, fordel = => no
 あの人たちが自慢できるのはそれだけだ。
93. Det var det siste han sa før jeg sovna.
NO CORRELATION
 ここまで聞いて、ぼくは眠ってしまった。
94. Men det var alt!
CORRELATION: det =/= sore, var = da.tta, alt = zenbu
 でも、それで全部だった。
95. Det var Dorf og Waldemarsee.
CORRELATION: det = sore, var = -ga da
それが、ドルフとヴァルデマール湖だ。

96. Jeg syntes **det** var ganske flott å tenke på, men fattern var skuffa.
POOR CORRELATION: idiom? flott å tenke på is an AP
 そう聞くと、なおさらいい気分だった。けれど、お父さんはがっかりしていた。
97. **Det var det eneste butikkvinduet** jeg ennå ikke hadde kikket i.
CORRELATION: -dake-wa
 その店のショーウィンドーだけはまだ見てなかった。
98. **Det var omtrent like stort** som lupen jeg hadde fått av den mystiske dvergen på bensinstasjonen.
CORRELATION: det = kaketa bubun-wa, var = da.tta, omtrent like stort = onaji kurai
 欠けた部分**は**、ガソリンスタンドで不思議な小人がくれたルーペの大きさと**同じくらいだった**。
99. **Det** var nabobyen vår.
CORRELATION: det = Grimstad, var = da
 グリムスタなら、ぼくたちの近くの町だ。
100. Jeg slo opp på første side og forsøkte **å lese** de bitte små bokstavene, men det **var helt umulig**.
POOR CORRELATION: infinitive verb phrase vs. non-past potential verb clause
 第一ページを読もうとしたけれど、字が小さすぎて**全然読めない**。
101. **Det var** ei bitte lita eventyrbok som lå i en kassett.
CORRELATION: var = da.tta
 ケースに入った物語の本**だった**。
102. Men **det var etter mange, lange år**.
NO CORRELATION
長い年月の間に、
103. – **Det er** så **vanskelig** at vi bruker mange år på å lære det.
CORRELATION: det = sore, er vanskelig = muzukashi.i
 でも、**それが難しい**から何年もかかっちゃうんだよ」
104. – Jo, **det er jeg helt sikker på**.
CORRELATION: det =~= sou, er = da [assuming zettai-ni sou da-to omo.u]
絶対」
105. – Men jeg er redd jeg ikke har fortalt deg noe særlig om båttrafikken i Mellom-Europa, og **det er noe** jeg har tenkt å rette på med det samme.
NO CORRELATION
 「ヨーロッパ中部の水路について、まだ詳しく話してなかったかもしれないね。今、ここで、はっきり教えてあげよう」
106. **Det var det eneste** jeg hadde lært meg å si på sveitsertysk, og det betydde «hilset være Gud» eller noe sånt.

CORRELATION: *det = kore, eneste = tatta hitotsu, var = de*

これは**ぼく**の覚えた**たった一つの**スイス風ドイツ語**で**、こんにちは、という意味らしい。

107. Det var andre gangen i mitt unge liv at jeg måtte ta imot et dødsbudskap.

CORRELATION: *-no-wa NP da, kore = det*

誰かがもうじき死ぬと知らされた**のはこれで二回目だ**。

11.4.7 PASSIVE

108. – Visste du at **det** nettopp **er oppdaga** en mystisk planet der **det bor** noen millioner intelligente **vesener** som loffer rundt på to bein og titter ut over planeten gjennom et par levende linser?

CORRELATION: *-ga V_i.PST, -ga i.te*

「さて、今まさに、不思議な星**が見つかった**。そこには何十億という知恵のある**生き物がいて**、二本足で歩き、二つの生きたレンズを通してものを見ている。知ってたかい？」

11.4.8 VAGUE

109. Jeg syntes nesten **det var litt komisk** å tenke på.

NO CORRELATION

そう考えると、**なんだか笑いたくなる**。

110. Vi hadde kjent hverandre så lenge, fattern og jeg, at jeg hadde lært meg at **det var best slik**.

NO CORRELATION

ぼくたちは長年つき合っているから、お互いに呼吸を心得ている。

111. – **Det var som pokker!** sa jeg.

POOR CORRELATION: idiom

「**まいったな**！」

112. Fra da av har jeg alltid tenkt på fattern som et rådyr, men **det er** noe jeg aldri har våget å si høyt.

POOR CORRELATION: dropped NP (sore-o)?

そういえば、お父さんはノロジカに似ているかもしれない。でも、ぼくは口には出さなかった。

113. – **Det var mye bedre**, fortsatte fattern som om han hadde lest tankene mine.

CORRELATION: *hoo-ga AP.PST yo*

「海の**ほうがずっとよかったよ**」お父さんはぼくの気持ちを見透かしたように言った。

114. Men **det var bare et uskyldig rådyr**.

CORRELATION: *-no-wa NP da.tta*

けれど、出て来たのは**ただのノロジカだった**。

115. [Det er en] sehr god [brus].
CORRELATION: NP des.u yo
 とてもおいしいソーダですよ」
116. Jeg tror [det var en pærebrus].
CORRELATION: NP da
 洋ナシソーダだと思う。
117. – [Det er en] sehr god [brus].
CORRELATION: -wa N des.u yo
 「これは上もののソーダですよ。」
118. Til slutt fikk jeg en god venn, og [det var Baker-Hans].
CORRELATION: NP da
 だが、ようやく、わしにも親友ができた。パン屋のハンスだ。
119. [Det var straffen] fordi mor var død og far en drukkenbolt.
CORRELATION: det < sånt < SLENGE_{psv} i bakken
 これは、母親が死に父親は飲んだくれだったことへの罰だった。
120. – Å jo, svarte jeg straks, – [det er lenge].
NO CORRELATION: different approach
 『そんなはずないよ、大丈夫だよ』
121. [Det var en] slags bil[ek] jeg hadde drevet med helt fra vi kjørte gjennom Danmark.
CORRELATION: NP da
 デンマークに着いたときからずっと車の中でやっている遊びだ。
122. [Så var det Rhinen] – den renner gjennom Tyskland og Holland før den omsider tommer seg i Nordsjøen.
CORRELATION: here, the Japanese {NP₁-wa (NP₁-SUBJ) ...} structure mirrors the Norwegian {det være NP, den ...}
 ライン川はドイツを通り、オランダを流れて北海まで続いている。